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IN PEACE
AND
WAR

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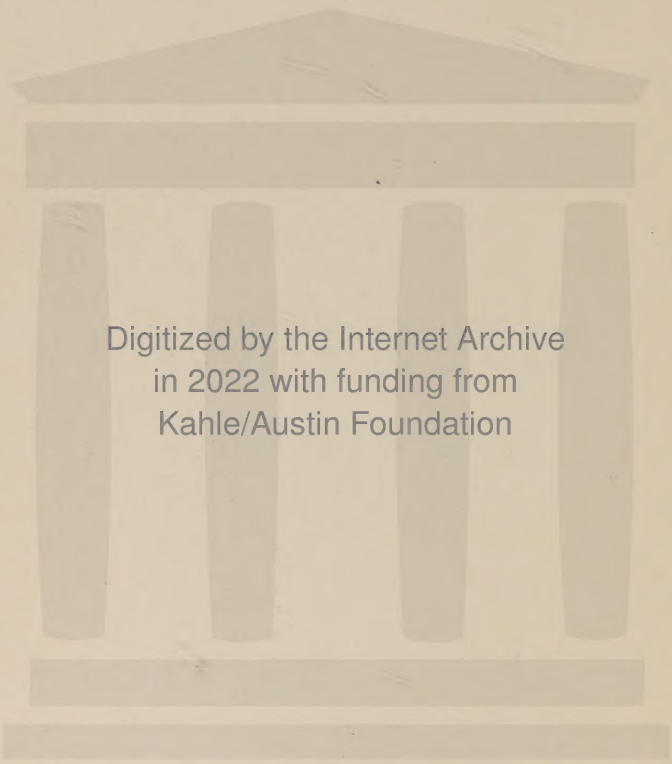
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MEXICO

In Peace and War

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A Narrative of Mexican History and Conditions from the Earliest Times to the Present Hour, Including an Account of the Military Operations by the United States at Vera Cruz in 1914 and the Causes that Led Thereto.

By

Thomas H. Russell, A.M., LL. D.

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PREFACE

It was never intended that " Mexico in Peace and War " should be limited in scope to a mere " war book," although many months ago it was thought that war was imminent, and quite probable, before a solution of existing difficulties could be brought about, or before this volume could go to press.

For several years the eyes of the civilized world have been directed toward Mexico because of the revolution of the masses against certain classes which had been fiercely waged. The American public seemed eager for details of this civil war, and such details were furnished by the daily press. Then came a demand for all kinds of information about Mexico.

What seemed necessary to the situation was a popular, readable book that would embrace all the facts concerning this land of conquest, revolution and treasure. Such a history must necessarily be authentic and comprehensive.

It was part of the plan that should war actually take place between the United States and Mexico ere its publication, allowance would be made in this history for the incidents and causes leading up to and into the beginning of such a war. In the event of conflict it would be only reasonable to expect that whether or not the opposing forces should be in actual conflict, or in a position of armed belligerency pending peaceful settlement, the ultimate solution would be long drawn out; and to postpone the volume for a " last word " of war developments would be to deprive the public of an immense fund of information never before issued in popular form. Therefore, in the make-up of this history the first four chapters

were reserved for eventualities, and thus the actual facts concerning the present situation in Mexico are to be found in most interesting sequence in the front of the book, fully illustrated with the very latest pictures to be had from the seat of trouble.

This volume has been in preparation for many months. All facts and figures concerning Mexico have been secured from most reliable sources and may be depended upon. The chapters concerning social and economic conditions refer mainly to those which prevailed throughout the land just prior to the outbreak of the revolution which followed the last election of President Diaz. His régime was the golden age of Mexican peace and prosperity and it is therefore only logical to believe that, with the re-establishment of constitutional government, a new era of progress and development will dawn for our southern neighbor.

Acknowledgment is freely made of assistance rendered during the preparation of the work by Mrs. Reau Campbell and Mr. Franc Campbell, manager of the Reau Campbell Tours and son of the noted traveler and authority on Mexico, the late Mr. Reau Campbell, whose comprehensive "guide" is by the far the best work of its kind extant. Many of the illustrations of Mexican life and scenery are from the collection of Mr. Campbell and the great majority are printed for the first time in these pages. The editor is also indebted to the Bureau of American Republics and to the works on Mexico of Alfred R. Conkling, LL.B., Ph.B., former United States Geologist; Arthur Edward Noll, author of "From Empire to Republic," and Francis Augustus MacNutt, translator and editor of "The Letters of Cortez" and author of "Fernando Cortez and the Conquest of Mexico," etc.; also to Mr. Hugh Miller and Mr. Keith Jones for timely contributions of available copy.

T. H. R.

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INTRODUCTORY

Steaming majestically south through the Gulf of Mexico and the Bay of Campeche toward the ancient port of Vera Cruz, a service squadron of modern gray warships proudly bore at the masthead the flag that waves over a hundred million free and independent people in the world's greatest republic — the flag that should command universal respect and insure the lives and liberty of all, at home or abroad, who claim the protection of its starry folds. But the bright emblem of their nationality borne by the warships had been treated with contumely in a foreign port. Their flag had been flouted — and the service squadron steamed steadily on.

Aboard the ships was a fighting force of patriotic, resolute men. Young men they were, for the most part, filled with the fire and fervor of youth and eager for a sight of the enemy they sought; but held in perfect control by their commanders, thoroughly trained and disciplined, expert in the arts of peace and of war, accustomed to use head as well as hand in all their pursuits, fit for any duty, and ready to go anywhere in the defense of their flag.

Sixteen years had elapsed since the young men of America had last been called to active service under the Stars and Stripes, but these men, sailors and marines of the great gray vessels on their way to Central America, were all of the same stamp and animated by the same spirit as their brothers who followed the flag to Cuba in 1898, and of whom it was well said by a British officer

that " every man seemed fit to command a company." But,

" Theirs not to reason why —
Theirs but to do or die."

With grim, set face the admiral paced the bridge of his flagship. His orders were plain and his purpose adamant. It was his duty to secure satisfaction for an affront offered to the American flag and nothing could turn him from his task. He was bound for the principal port of the offending country — the port that had once before been occupied by an invading American force in its advance upon the Mexican enemy's capital, and that had been the scene, nearly 400 years before, of Fernando Cortez' landing in his career of conquest.

But what a difference in the appearance and strength of the advancing squadron of 1914 and that which covered the landing of Winfield Scott in 1847, to say nothing of its contrast with the ships of Cortez, which he burned behind him in the harbor of Vera Cruz in 1519, ere he advanced upon the capital — that being the great commander's answer to the mutinous complaints of his men. These mighty masses of floating steel, with their strange network of fighting masts and protruding teeth in the form of 14-inch guns, dwarfed into complete insignificance any naval force that had ever been seen in these waters and boded ill for those who had failed in respect for the flag they bore. The great guns of this squadron were capable of blowing a city about the ears of its defenders while standing almost out of sight at sea, and the smallest guns carried by the transports that accompanied the battleships would have been more than a match for the ships of war that sailed all seas in the days when Santa Anna sought vainly to prevent General Scott's triumphant progress from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico.

The story of what followed the appearance of the American squadron before Vera Cruz — of how, in spite

of the prevalence of a "norther," one of those heavy winds locally known as *el norte* that regularly threaten the exposed harbors of the Atlantic coast of Mexico, a strong force was landed and the city occupied, pacified, cleaned up and administered, first by the navy under Admiral Fletcher, and subsequently by the army forces under General Funston, is told in detail hereinafter.

The relations between the United States and Mexico, or rather between the United States and the *de facto* government of Mexico headed by General Victoriano Huerta, had been strained almost to the breaking point for more than a year. President Taft in the closing days of his administration had refused to recognize Huerta, and had sent a large force of American troops to occupy the strategic points along the border between the two countries. The violent deaths of the deposed president and vice-president, Madero and Suarez, in the City of Mexico shortly before the accession of President Wilson at Washington, had created a bad impression in the United States and recognition of Huerta was positively refused by the Wilson administration, both before and after the unsatisfactory presidential election in Mexico in October, 1913. Clashes between the American troops along the Rio Grande River and bodies of Mexican federal soldiers were often narrowly averted and sometimes indeed shots were fired in anger across the international boundary. The condition of American residents in Mexico, in the cities as well as in the rural districts, where they were subjected to the outrageous demands of banditti, had grown intolerable and all American citizens had been advised to leave the country.

The climax came with what is now generally known as "the Tampico incident." An unbearable affront was offered to the American flag and after a prolonged period of anxious waiting, the patience of the authorities at Washington was finally exhausted and drastic action

was decided upon. Efforts to secure reparation from Huerta for the insult to the flag having failed, President Wilson appeared before Congress on the afternoon of Monday, April 20, 1914, and sought and obtained authority to employ the army and navy of the United States to enforce respect for the flag in Mexico. At that time the service squadron of the Atlantic fleet, under Rear Admiral Frank F. Fletcher, was already nearing Vera Cruz, of which it took possession on the following day.

Meanwhile William Jennings Bryan, secretary of state, had been making untiring efforts at Washington to secure a settlement of the difficulties between the two governments without resort to arms. Himself a strong advocate of international peace, he enlisted the services of all who could possibly help in a peaceful solution of the problem. Senators and representatives in Congress were divided as to the necessity for war, though they as a body supported the president in his determination to secure redress for the Tampico incident. Throughout the country a strong war sentiment soon developed. In anticipation of a call for troops for service in Mexico, volunteers by the thousand tendered their services in every state of the Union and the scenes that preceded our declaration of war against Spain in 1898 were repeated in all the large cities of the country. The American casualties at Vera Cruz served to fan the flame of martial ardor. War was indeed imminent and its declaration before many days seemed certain when, on Saturday, April 25, it was announced at Washington that the proffer of the services of Argentina, Brazil and Chile in an effort to settle the difficulty by mediation had been accepted by President Wilson. A few days of diplomatic exchange of views with General Huerta were followed by his acceptance of the principle of mediation and by the armistice which exists as these words are penned.

What the outcome will be, it is impossible to predict with any hope of accuracy. The downfall of Huerta, or at

any rate his elimination as a potent factor in Mexican politics and government, seems assured, since it is the fixed policy of the Washington administration to withhold consent to his continuance in any position of influence whatever. The attitude of the Constitutionalist leaders in Mexico, flushed as they are with many victories over the federal troops supporting Huerta, is in grave doubt, and the diplomats of the South American republics, who have undertaken to solve the problem and secure peace with honor for all concerned, are confronted by no easy task. Any solution that does not include practical provisions for the pacification of Mexico, so that it will once more become safe for American citizens and all other foreigners to dwell within its borders and reap the rewards of their industry and enterprise in peace, unmolested by either revolutionists or banditti, will not be satisfactory or permanent — and the present temper of the American people is to insist upon a permanent settlement of Mexican affairs, and to insist upon it now.

The forces of the United States occupy the city and port of Vera Cruz and it is altogether probable that they will remain in possession until the slow methods of diplomacy have borne fruit. Both sides to the controversy are resting on their arms, but active preparations for possible eventualities go on apace in both countries. The United States does not desire war with any nation, least of all with a weaker sister republic, already torn and distracted by internal strife. But it will not long fail to insist upon respect for its flag and protection for its citizens, their lives and their property, wherever they may be.

U. S. sailors with field gun at Vera Cruz on the day of occupation

Landing of the U. S. marines at Vera Cruz, April 21, 1914

CHAPTER I

OCCUPATION OF VERA CRUZ

For the second time in history the Mexican port of Vera Cruz was occupied by the United States on the morning of Tuesday, April 21, 1914, when a force of marines and bluejackets from the warships Utah, Florida and Prairie landed at 11:10 o'clock and seized the Custom-house without opposition. The marines were under the command of Major Smedley Darlington Butler, son of Representative Thomas S. Butler of Pennsylvania, senior Republican member of the United States House of Representatives.

Leaving a guard at the entrances to the Custom-house, the American forces took up positions commanding the streets leading toward the central square of the town, the Plaza de la Constitucion. Machine guns and field guns were placed in position to cover all the streets converging on the square.

The commanding officer of the American fleet was Rear Admiral Fletcher, and his orders were that the landing forces should occupy these positions and make no attack on the Mexican troops unless they were attacked themselves.

[N. B.—The United States having been on the verge of war with Mexico, although the South American Republics had inaugurated their efforts at mediation and an armistice prevailed at the time this edition of "Mexico in Peace and War" went to press, the most recent incidents of the difficulty with Gen. Huerta and his government have been treated thus prominently, out of their chronological order, on account of the widespread interest in the present situation and the demand for a permanent record of recent events.]

The scene in the harbor of Vera Cruz as the men of the navy proceeded amid cheers to the landing at the custom-house wharf was an unparalleled and inspiriting one. Nearest the shore of all the warships lay the transport Prairie, from which came the majority of the landing force. Farther out lay the great gray masses of the battleships Florida and Utah, their crews crowding to their sides watching developments and envying their comrades ordered to duty ashore. In the outer harbor, too, were the British cruiser Essex, the French cruiser Condé —named after the historic admiral of France, and the Spanish gunboat Carlos V., all intensely interested and sympathetic witnesses of the American operations.

Before twenty hours had elapsed the scene before the ancient city was destined to become even more interesting from both the naval and the international standpoint. Rear Admiral Badger, commanding the North Atlantic fleet of the United States navy, was rapidly approaching Vera Cruz, leading a fleet composed of the first-class battleships Arkansas, flagship, New Hampshire, Louisiana, Vermont, New Jersey and North Dakota; also the South Carolina, Michigan, Tacoma and Nashville, with a total force of 7,700 sailors and 500 marines. On the arrival of these war vessels, with their accompanying supply ships, there were in all twenty-one ships of the United States navy lying in their gray war paint in and outside the port to insure the capture and safekeeping of the city.

The actual landing of the naval force ordered ashore by Admiral Fletcher in pursuance of his orders was unopposed. Sweeping in to the wharf under the guns of the Prairie, the ships' boats and power launches, crowded to the gunwales with sailors and marines, made fast and debarked their loads of fighting men without the firing of a hostile shot. But the white-clad Americans had no sooner gained the center of the city and secured the approaches to the Plaza, than opposition developed and active hostilities began.

Scarcely had the troops placed the guns in position when Mexican soldiers appeared on the housetops overlooking the square. Two shots rang out and within a few minutes three volleys came from a Mexican force several hundred yards from the positions occupied by the Americans. These volleys were returned immediately by the sailors and marines and soon the firing became general.

GUNS OF THE PRAIRIE OPEN FIRE

When Rear-Admiral Fletcher was informed of the attack on his men by the Mexicans he ordered the guns of the armed transport Prairie to open fire on the positions occupied by the enemy.

Captain William R. Rush of the battleship Florida was in general command of the landing force soon located a large force of Mexicans firing on the United States troops from the tower of the Benito Juarez lighthouse and ordered his men to open fire on this point. Several three-inch guns were trained on the lighthouse and the tower was struck three times, silencing the enemy's fire.

Captain Rush signaled to the transport Prairie, on board of which was Admiral Fletcher, as follows: "Am being attacked from the right and rear north of the roundhouse; shell that district."

At the same time it was noticed that sharpshooters lined the roof of the Mexican Naval Academy and were "sniping" the bluejackets. A three-inch gun of the Prairie was trained on the academy and the Mexicans were forced to abandon their position.

The shooting by this time had become general all over the city. At 3 o'clock the United States Consulate had been struck by several bullets.

TWO MARINES AND TWO SAILORS KILLED

Two sailors of the Florida and two marines were killed and nearly a score wounded. Under the heavy fire from

the warships the Mexicans were driven from the center of the city to the eastward, where they attempted to make a stand. The Prairie, which was lying in the harbor about a quarter of a mile from the harbor front, turned her guns to the point where the Mexicans were gathering and forced them to take refuge in the narrow streets thereabout.

UTAH SENDS MORE SAILORS ASHORE

At 2 o'clock several boatloads of sailors from the battleship Utah were landed east of the Custom-house. As the boats drew near the wharf, several volleys were fired on them from large warehouses and box cars along the water front. These places were shelled by the guns of the Prairie and the sailors were able to land without losing a man.

Among the American wounded were two signalmen who were operating on the roof of the Terminal Hotel near the water front.

About 5 o'clock the resistance of the Mexicans began to dwindle appreciably. Firing from the towers and the housetops, from which the heaviest rain of bullets came at the beginning of the fighting, died away.

The marines and bluejackets made no attempt to pursue the flying Mexicans, firing only whenever one of the enemy showed himself in the streets.

FLETCHER WARNS GARRISON COMMANDER

Captain H. McLaren P. Huse, Rear-Admiral Fletcher's chief of staff, went ashore in the midst of the fighting to try to get into communication with General Gustavo Maas, commander-in-chief of the Mexican garrison. He carried a warning from the American commander to the effect that his patience was exhausted and that if the Mexicans continued to resist, the fleet would shell the city.

When William W. Canada, the American consul, noti-

fied General Maas on Tuesday morning that marines were about to be landed and requested him to cooperate with the American forces to maintain order in the city, the Mexican commander replied that this was impossible.

Mexican resistance in the presence of such an overwhelming force, said an observer, can be explained only on the ground that they desired to save their faces by making a show of fight, however futile.

A cargo of war munitions for the Federal government aboard the German steamer Ypiringa, which had arrived in the morning, was captured by the United States landing force. It consisted of 250 machine guns, 20,000 rifles and 15,000,000 rounds of ammunition.

Captain Huse tried to ascertain the whereabouts of General Maas, so that he could send a flag of truce to propose an armistice and inform the Mexican commander that the purpose of the landing of United States troops had been accomplished by the capture of the Ypiringa's cargo.

A New York newspaper man volunteered to take a flag of truce to General Maas, but Captain Huse declined the offer, saying that the mission was too dangerous.

ADMIRAL FLETCHER'S REPORT

The following despatch was sent by wireless to the Navy Department by Admiral Fletcher:

"Tuesday — In the face of an approaching norther I landed marines and sailors from the battleships Utah and Florida and the transport Prairie and seized the Custom-house. The Mexican forces did not oppose our landing, but opened fire with rifle and artillery after our seizure of the Custom-house. The Prairie is shelling the Mexicans out of their positions. Desultory firing from housetops and in the streets continues. I hold the Custom-house and that section of the city in the vicinity of the wharves and the American Consulate. Casualties, four dead and twenty wounded."

The Americans killed in the first day's fighting at Vera Cruz were as follows:

Haggerty, Daniel Aloysius, private, Eighth Company, Second Advance Base Regiment, United States Marines.

Marten, Samuel, private, Sixteenth Company, Second Advance Base Regiment.

Poinsett, George, seaman, United States ship Florida.

Schumacher, John F., coxswain, United States ship Florida.

HOW THE FIRST MAN DIED

According to eyewitnesses, Seaman George Poinsett was shot by a Mexican sharpshooter while raising the flag on the Plaza following the first landing of marines. No other shots had been fired. As Poinsett tied the flag to the halyards and raised it, there was a puff of smoke from the tower of a church nearby and he fell with a bullet through his heart.

Immediately after his fall came the first resistance by the Mexicans to the invasion of United States troops.

Thomas G. Parris, formerly principal of the Pastorius public school, of Philadelphia, which Poinsett attended, spoke highly of him as he had known him.

"George died as he would have chosen. He always wanted to join the navy. His grandfathers were both naval officers in the Civil War."

EULOGIZED IN CONGRESS

Poinsett was eulogized in the House of Representatives at Washington April 22 as "the Worth Bagley of the Mexican trouble."

Representative Moore, of Pennsylvania, in calling attention to the fact that Poinsett was the first man killed in the intervention in Mexico, declared that "whether we have entered upon this war wisely or unwisely, we have at least demonstrated our wisdom as a nation in being prepared for war.

"A father who yielded to his boy's desire to serve his country has been bereft of a son, but the nation has added the name of that boy to its roll of heroes."

PRESIDENT WILSON'S REGRETS

Letters expressing the profound sorrow of President Wilson and Secretary of the Navy Daniels at the death of the four sailors and marines first killed at Vera Cruz were dispatched on April 22 by the Secretary of the Navy to the parents of the men.

The letters were addressed to William Poinsett, of Philadelphia, Pa.; Mrs. Isabella McKinnon, of Brooklyn, N. Y., mother of Coxswain Schumacher; Mayer Marten, of Chicago, and Michael Haggerty, of Cambridge, Mass.

Mr. Daniels wrote to each as follows:

"This morning's dispatches from Vera Cruz conveying the distressing news that your son was in the first line to give his life for his country saddens all America as the tragedy brings gloom into your home.

"My feeling and the feeling of the president to you in this sad hour was expressed by President Lincoln, when, on November 21, 1864, he wrote to Mrs. Bixby, of Boston, whose five sons gave their lives fighting under the American flag:

"'I feel how weak and fruitless must be any words of mine which should attempt to beguile you from a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering to you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.'"

The navy department arranged to bring to the United States the bodies of the Vera Cruz victims, and either forward them to relatives or make final interment in a

national cemetery. Their final disposition rested with the families.

GENERAL MAAS WITHDRAWS

Such was in brief the story of the memorable day on which the Stars and Stripes was once more planted on Mexican soil. The big guns of the service squadron were not used, and the Mexican defense of the city was desultory, General Maas, the Mexican commander in the city having withdrawn his main force, but remaining in the vicinity.

The following account of the operations was given by an eye witness:

Those watching from the ships observed through their glasses a large force of Mexicans moving over the hills in the western outskirts of the city, apparently with the intention of flanking a battalion of marines in the railway yards and along Montesinos street, which runs east and west not far from the American consulate.

Instantly the five-inch guns of the Prairie let go, breaking the Mexican formation and causing a hasty retreat. This ended the flanking movement.

Only a few minutes before the three-inch guns of the Prairie were used effectively near shore. A small detachment of Mexicans had gained positions near the custom house and their concealed marksmen were causing some trouble. A few shots from the Prairie's guns served to silence the position. From time to time the same guns played their shells along the line of the shore, keeping that territory comparatively free of sharpshooters.

ASKS MAAS TO SURRENDER

With all the eastern side of the city occupied and also the tracks of the railway as far west as the roundhouse near the western edge on the northern side and with the Mexicans unable to do more than keep up an annoying but ineffective fire from house tops, Capt. Rush at 4:20

o'clock sent under a flag of truce a messenger chosen from among the natives to Gen. Maas, or whoever happened to be in command, to ask if he was not ready to surrender.

Unless the Mexicans yielded Capt. Rush had his choice of continuing the fighting under the tactics he was using or of charging all positions or calling on the warships for a bombardment.

He was loath to resort to a bombardment and on the other hand did not desire to lose any more of his men by charges. He recognized that the tactics of the Mexicans might leave the housetop fighters in their position indefinitely and that it was not impossible that those who were " sniping " from the roofs might be reinforced by others of their kind during the night.

The messenger was told to remind Gen. Maas that while there were ashore at that time only a few more than one thousand men, there would be available for the American forces by morning some 10,000. It was left to Gen. Maas to draw his own inference from this message, but no attention was paid to it and the desultory firing continued until all the Mexican sharpshooters had been killed or dislodged.

A CONTEST OF RIFLES

There was no cannon firing from the Mexican side, and it is supposed their artillery pieces were taken from the city early in the day. With the exception of a few shots from the light field pieces of the bluejackets and a few from the Prairie, it was a contest of rifles.

Bravery was shown everywhere among the Americans. The youngsters wearing the bluejackets of their vessels behaved as well under fire as the marines, who along the line comported themselves like veterans. Some of the marines had seen service before in Central America and other places. In the earlier part of the engagement small detachments of the Americans who were guarding the

approaches to the central part of the city stood without flinching while bullets from the rifles of the Mexicans sang about their ears.

The Mexican loss on April 21 was estimated at between 150 and 200 killed.

MAKEUP OF LANDING FORCE

Rear Admiral Fletcher limited his first landing party to 1,000 bluejackets and marines. Opposed to this force were 900 Mexicans under the command of Gen. Maas.

The following was the approximate strength of the naval forces available for shore duty:

From the battleships Florida, Utah, Connecticut, and Minnesota—240 marines, 1,860 bluejackets.

From the cruisers San Francisco and Chester—400 marines, 250 bluejackets.

From the transports Prairie and Hancock—1,684 marines.

CONSUL CANADA'S REPORT

U. S. Consul Canada's report of the day's operations was as follows: "Marines and bluejackets landed at 11:30 this morning, immediately taking possession of cable office, postoffice, telegraphic offices and custom house, also railroad terminals and yards with rolling stock. Notwithstanding firing from housetops we are masters of the situation so far without use of heavy guns.

"Our men are simply defending themselves. Some resistance from naval vessels soon silenced by guns on Prairie. At this time reported four of our men killed and twenty wounded. American newspaper men and several other Americans in consulate.

"Several Americans including some women who refused to go aboard refugee ship are now marooned in hotels within firing line. Trains from Mexico City did not arrive."

PROCLAMATION TO PEOPLE OF VERA CRUZ

On April 22, Admiral Fletcher issued a proclamation to the mayor, chief of police, and citizens of Vera Cruz, as follows:

"It has become necessary for the naval forces of the United States of America now at Vera Cruz to land and assume military control of the customs wharves of Vera Cruz. Your co-operation is requested to preserve order and preserve life.

"It is not the intention of the United States naval forces to interfere with the administration of the civil affairs of Vera Cruz, more than is necessary for the purpose of maintaining a condition of law and order and enforce such sanitary conditions as are needed to meet military requirements.

"It is desired that the civil officials of Vera Cruz shall continue in the peaceful pursuit of their occupations. Under these conditions full protection will be given to the city by the United States naval forces.

"It is enjoined upon all inhabitants and property owners to prevent firing by individuals from the shelter of their houses upon United States forces, or upon any one else. Such firing by irregulars not members of an organized military force is contrary to the laws of war; if persisted in it will call for severe measures.

"F. F. Fletcher, Rear-Admiral, U. S. N.
"Commander Detached Squadron U. S. Atlantic Fleet."

PRESIDENT WILSON PHONED THE ORDER

The story of how President Wilson ordered the custom-house at Vera Cruz to be seized was revealed in Washington on April 22.

The president had gone to bed on Monday night while the senate was debating the joint resolution to approve of the use of the army and navy, and had determined to withhold action until the resolution passed, although

feeling that in an emergency the executive had ample authority to act.

At 4 o'clock Tuesday morning Secretary Bryan received a cablegram from Consul Canada, telling of the approach of a German vessel with a tremendous cargo of ammunition for Huerta. Locomotives and cars were in readiness to rush the arms to Mexico City.

Mr. Bryan telephoned Secretary Tumulty, who decided to awaken the president. He telephoned the White House. The servants were timid, but Mr. Tumulty insisted.

Finally the president came to the telephone, and while Secretary Tumulty was explaining the situation Secretary Daniels called up and was put on the same line. He, too, had a dispatch about the ammunition. Rear Admiral Fletcher had sent a wireless that 15,000,000 rounds of ammunition and 250 machine guns would be landed from the German vessel by noon that day.

The president listened in silence.

"What shall we do?" asked Secretary Daniels.

"Tell Fletcher to seize the custom house," replied the president, without hesitation.

"Good night," said the secretary. The telephone conference ended and in a few minutes wireless dispatches were on their way to Rear Admiral Fletcher. He received the message at 10 A. M., and an hour later American marines had landed and taken possession of the custom house. The ammunition went back to its shippers in Europe.

THE SECOND DAY'S FIGHT

Fighting was renewed in the City of Vera Cruz on Wednesday, April 22, when soldiers, citizens and convicts released by the Huerta officials fired down from roofs and windows on the American forces. The small guns on the warships in the harbor battered down some of the buildings they occupied. The Mexican loss was heavy and before nightfall the United States landing force had

obtained absolute control over the city and port. Two more Americans were killed and ten wounded, bringing the total for the two days' fighting to six dead and thirty wounded.

After the general advance began in the morning, Mexican snipers on the roofs put up a stubborn resistance. There was one brisk action, the guns of the Prairie and Chester assisting in silencing a heavy fire from the Naval College, shells from the Prairie finally shattering the walls.

The paymaster of the British cruiser Essex, Albert W. Kimber, was wounded on board his ship by a sniper ashore. British bluejackets crowded to the bows and vociferously cheered the American marines as they proceeded inshore for the landing. The flags on the Essex and Fort San Juan de Ulua were half-masted when the dead were carried to the boats.

Marines and bluejackets during the day occupied every important point in the city, including the Plaza de la Constitucion, where the Mexicans made their only real stand in the fighting the day before.

Marines searched all houses from which shots were fired in the morning, and all Mexicans with arms in their hands were made prisoners and sent to the United States mine ship San Francisco. Some of the Mexicans were thoroughly frightened, apparently expecting that the Americans would shoot their prisoners.

CITY THOROUGHLY PATROLLED

Admiral Fletcher took up his headquarters at the Terminal Hotel. The entire city was strongly patrolled, and quiet prevailed at night. Admiral Fletcher took command of the land operations, while Rear Admiral Badger, commander-in-chief of the Atlantic fleet, who had arrived with several battleships during the night, brought his flag into the harbor on the Minnesota.

Admiral Badger had not decided whether to proceed to

Tampico, and it was believed his departure would be delayed, pending further orders from Washington.

Detachments of men of the signal corps were posted on all the advantageous positions in the city to keep watch on the Mexican troops, and a reconnaissance was made by marines under Major Butler along the line of the railway to Mexico City.

A GENERAL ADVANCE

Rear Admiral Fletcher at 8:30 o'clock in the morning ordered a general movement for the occupation of all the town. A column of bluejackets advanced, and passed the uncompleted market place and Naval College.

When they had reached the walls of the college a terrific rifle fire was poured in all directions from the roof and windows. The bluejackets were helpless to return the fire against the stone walls, and scattered.

The Prairie, Chester and San Francisco then opened with their five and six-inch guns, and shattered the walls. The bluejackets re-formed and advanced against the fire, which had diminished greatly.

By 10 o'clock there was only desultory firing from the inshore side of the tower. Battalions of bluejackets had made their way along the water front to the southern end of the town, and cleared several streets, but the sniping from houses continued at intervals.

The scout cruiser Chester pounded buildings on the outskirts with six-inch shells, firing over the heads of the men ashore and showing almost perfect marksmanship.

The general movement from all the positions taken on Tuesday began in the direction of the main plaza. The marines under Lieutenant-Colonel Wendell C. Neville moved to the southward along parallel streets toward the center, while those under Lieutenant Commander Buchanan, of the Florida, and Lieutenant Commander Arthur B. Keating, of the Arkansas, were ordered from their positions east of the center toward the plaza.

The two forces swung forward with a rush for three blocks. The machine gun and rifle fire was supplemented by shell fire from the smaller guns of the Prairie and Chester. The ships' guns supported the movement of clearing the roofs to the south and east, occasionally dropping a shell a few hundred yards in advance.

There was absolutely no organized resistance, but from the beginning of the advance a smart fire came from the defenders on the house tops, which invariably drew a merciless fire from the advancing parties.

The machine guns sounded their "tap tap" in all quarters, and American sharpshooters, posted at street corners and other points of vantage, picked off any man who appeared to be acting suspiciously.

Reinforcements were landed under the protection of the guns of the warships, bringing the total force ashore up to 3,000.

MESSAGE TO THE MAYOR

Julio Franco, a Mexican chosen by American Consul Canada to be the bearer of the warning from Admiral Fletcher, was unable to communicate with any of the Federal officials and only the mayor, Robert Diaz, could be located.

When Franco tried to communicate with the mayor he was refused admission by Mexican guards stationed at the door. Franco then crawled over the roof of an adjoining building into the court of the Diaz residence, but did not succeed in seeing the mayor.

Senor Diaz refused to leave his bedroom, so the messenger shouted the contents of Admiral Fletcher's note to the mayor, and personally appealed to him to yield to save the city from bombardment, reminding him of the grave risk to the families of Mexicans and others in the city.

GEN. MAAS' DEPARTURE

It was ascertained during the day that General Gustavo

Maas, commander of the garrison, left the city in a carriage at noon on Tuesday, half an hour after the first boatload of American marines landed. The commander's family followed him in another carriage.

It was also stated that the Mexican troops forming the garrison of Vera Cruz were turned loose as soon as it was seen that the Americans were about to land, and were told to act as they saw fit. Very few of their officers remained with the Mexican soldiers, whose operations were carried on without any one to direct them.

Some of the Mexican troops obtained a considerable supply of intoxicants by looting two stores. As a result, many were in a condition which made them equally dangerous to natives and foreigners who came within their range.

Colonel Cerrillo was one of the few officers who remained. He was the commander of the Nineteenth battalion and was wounded in one arm early in the fighting. The Mexican troops had one seventy-five millimeter gun, which they used.

Among the citizen element offering opposition to the American force were many prisoners who had been released by General Maas before he evacuated the city. Many of these criminals inaugurated their liberty by becoming intoxicated and then found a convenient outlet for their enthusiasm by joining the fighters on the housetops.

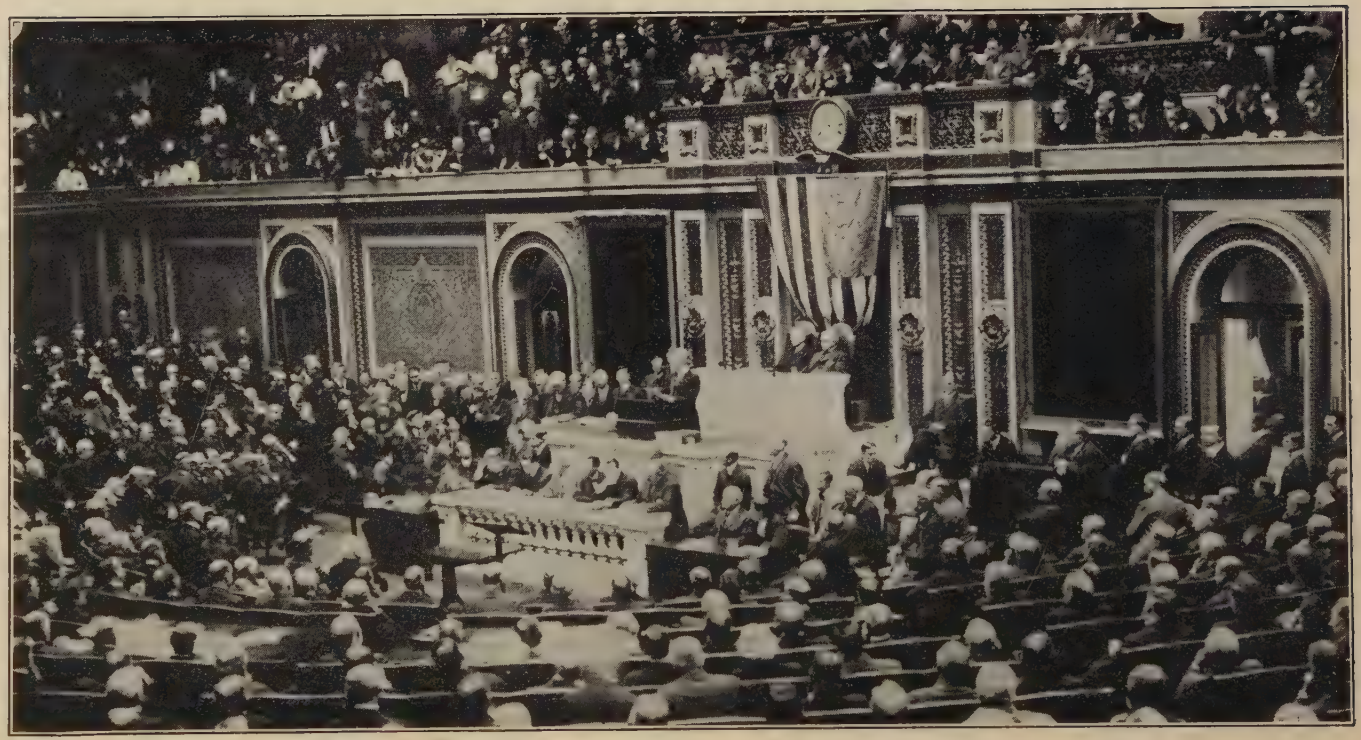
BOMBARDMENT WAS AVERTED.

The principal reason for Admiral Fletcher's hesitation to bombard was that hundreds of non-combatants, including many women and children who had been unable to get out of the central part of the city, were crowded into the Diligencia Hotel building, from which most of the firing was done by the Mexicans.

As the Americans advanced through the city for the purpose of clearing away any further possibility of resist-

Mexicans pressed into service to remove dead and wounded at Vera Cruz

A detail of bluejackets seeking the wounded after the second day's fight at Vera Cruz



President Wilson delivering his message to Congress, April 20, 1914, asking authority to employ army and navy against the Huerta government

Rear Admiral Frank Fletcher, U. S. N., who took Vera Cruz and held it till the arrival of the army force

Brigadier-General Frederick Funston, U. S. A., whose brigade took over Vera Cruz from the navy

Huerta Blanquet

Victoriano Huerta and General Blanquet, his minister of war

ance there were many pitiful scenes when women with children in their arms besought mercy in the belief that they were about to be put to death.

Special trains which left Mexico City Tuesday night with Americans aboard failed to arrive at Vera Cruz and it was feared the lines had been cut. Great uneasiness was felt regarding the Americans in the capital. It was believed, however, that General Huerta would take all possible steps to protect foreigners.

The captain of the German steamer Ypirango readily acquiesced in the order of the American commander not to attempt to land the large cargo of munitions of war consigned to President Huerta, and placed his vessel at the disposal of Admiral Fletcher. He promised not to leave the harbor unless a norther compelled him to seek safety in the open sea.

All the American women and children in the city went aboard the Ward liners Esperanza and Mexico by order of Admiral Fletcher.

CARRANZA HEARD FROM

The sensation of the day at Washington was a message from General Carranza, chief of the Constitutional rebels in the north of Mexico, demanding that the United States promptly evacuate the city of Vera Cruz. From the commencement of the Huerta régime President Wilson had supported Carranza, as the best hope of relief from the usurper. Now, at the first instant of American action, it appeared likely that the Constitutionalists would make common cause with Huerta against the Washington government. On the following day, however, General Francisco Villa, fighting head of all the Constitutional rebel forces in the north of Mexico, gave out an interview expressing his friendship for the United States and declaring that nothing could force him to take part in a war with his neighbors to the north. He expressed his full confidence in his chief, Carranza, and explained that

no offense to America was intended by the note of the latter. He referred to the usurper as that "drunken little ass, Huerta."

EXCITEMENT IN MEXICO CITY

When news of the occupation of Vera Cruz reached Mexico City the excited people made attacks on some American buildings, tore down the statue of George Washington, and threatened the United States Embassy, which was guarded by a squad of Huerta soldiers. A trainload of American and other foreign refugees was sent to Vera Cruz, where they arrived safely after considerable delay en route.

GEN. HUERTA'S ATTITUDE

On receiving news of the occupation of Vera Cruz, General Huerta gave out the following statement in Mexico City:

"Mexico is defending not only her national sovereignty, but that of all Latin America as well. This is not a war between the Mexican and American peoples, but between Mexico and the government of the United States, which is controlled by men who have forced this situation upon us in spite of our efforts to the contrary.

"We shall have 400,000 men in the field in twenty days."

General Huerta also assured Chargé O'Shaughnessy personally and in the friendliest tone that he and all Americans in Mexico City would be defended against all attack.

General Huerta also made the following declaration in El Imparcial:

"In the port of Vera Cruz we are sustaining with arms the national honor against the outrage which the Yankee government is committing against a free people, as is and always will be that of this Republic. This action will pass on to history, which will put Mexico and the govern-

ment of the United States each in the place where it belongs."

THE MARINE COMMANDER

Major S. D. Butler, who commanded the marines that landed in Vera Cruz, participated in the international expedition to Peking during the summer of 1900. At the fighting around Tientsin he was wounded and assisted from the field by Maj. Harry Leonard, U. S. M., who has since retired. As a result of his experience in the Chinese rebellion Maj. Butler was advanced in rank for " eminent and conspicuous conduct in battle with the Peking relief column." He was appointed to the marine corps from civil life in 1899.

The marines under Maj. Butler's command were those previously constituting the marine contingent in the Isthmian canal zone, regarding which Secretary of War Garrison remarked that they were the finest body of soldiery he had ever seen, despite the fact that they wore the stars of a rival service.

During their stay in the zone these marines had been assigned to duty in operating railroad trains and repairing tracks and bridges.

PRAIRIE SIXTEEN YEARS IN NAVY

The United States navy transport Prairie was purchased from private owners in 1898. Previous to its incorporation into the United States navy it had been a passenger and express steamer of the Morgan line, plying between New York, Galveston, and New Orleans.

It was rechristened the Prairie upon entering the naval service, and was a sister ship of the Yankee and the Dixie.

The Prairie, now classed as an armed transport, participated throughout the Spanish-American war as a converted cruiser of the second class. It has a displacement of 6,620 tons; and is authorized to carry a complement, in addition to the naval officers and seamen, of twenty-three

marine officers and 750 marines. It is armed with twelve rapid fire guns of small caliber.

MEXICO'S BEST PORT

There are very few towns in the Republic of Mexico that have such an interesting history as the city of Vera Cruz. Owing to its mercantile movement, it is the first port of the Republic.

Vera Cruz has more than 33,000 inhabitants. It is 264 miles from Mexico City by the Mexican railroad. The road was commenced in the year 1842, and the construction took place during a period of thirty-four years.

The works necessary for dredging the bay and the breakwaters for securing the safety of the port were under construction for more than three years. The complete area is about 570 acres, and now the port is in a condition to receive steamers of deep draft and heavy tonnage. The construction of the port works cost the federal government $26,704,782.85. The improvements were inaugurated on March 6, 1902, and have made Vera Cruz one of the most beautiful ports on the Mexican coast, and where steamers of large draft can enter and be securely sheltered during great storms.

Vera Cruz is distinguished from the other towns of the Republic on account of its crooked streets and narrow lanes which run from the broad streets constructed symmetrically at right angles.

In the commercial part of the city the houses are of two and three stories and well constructed. Among other edifices may be mentioned the municipal palace, the parish church, the market, the Dehesa theater, the Hospital Zamora, the Cantonal school, and the Church of San Francisco, to which is joined the public library, from whose ancient tower shines the famous Juarez light.

The inhabitants of the port are occupied with the business of exportation, importation, and the commission

business. There are also cigar and cigaret factories, match, soda water, ice and furniture factories.

During the war between Mexico and the United States Gen. Scott, with an army of about 12,000, landed in the vicinity of Vera Cruz on March 9, 1847. He immediately invested the city, which, together with the castle of San Juan de Ulua, contained a garrison of about 4,500.

On March 22, assisted by a fleet under Commander Perry, he began a terrific bombardment, which continued almost unabated for four days. On March 29 the Mexicans surrendered. The Americans lost 11 killed and 56 wounded and the Mexicans fully 1,000 in killed alone.

U. S. WARSHIPS IN MEXICO

The United States warships in Mexican waters April 23 were distributed as follows:

Tampico—Connecticut, Des Moines, Dolphin, Solace, Cyclops.

Vera Cruz—Arkansas, Florida, Utah, Vermont, New Jersey, New Hampshire, South Carolina, Minnesota, Hancock, Prairie, Chester, San Francisco, Orion, and the destroyers Fanning, Beale, Jarvis, Jenkins, Jouett, Henley, Drayton, McCall, Warrington, Patterson, Spalding, Ammen, Burrows and Trippe.

Guaymas—Justin.

Mazatlan—California, Raleigh.

Topolobampo—Glacier, Yorktown.

Salina Cruz—Annapolis en route from Acapulco, Denver en route from Corinto.

GUARD APPROACHES TO THE CITY

On Thursday, April 23, the American forces in Vera Cruz moved their lines some miles outside the city limits to guard the railroad and bridges on the road to Mexico City. In these movements three more Americans were killed and twenty-five wounded.

It was reported that Carranza had refused offers from

the Huerta forces to make common cause with them against the Americans.

The following days were devoted to cleaning up the city of Vera Cruz and establishing a civil government with Robert J. Kerr, of Chicago, an attorney-at-law who happened to be in the city, as temporary governor.

The old fortress prison of San Juan de Ulua was closed by Admiral Fletcher, on account of its dirty and insanitary condition. Many political prisoners held captive there were set at liberty.

Admiral Fletcher also made arrangements for the exchange of Mexican prisoners and American refugees from the capital and other interior points, and the exchange was effected at a point on the railroad some miles from Vera Cruz. News of the mediation plan proposed at Washington reached the city on Sunday.

General Funston and the soldiers of the Fifth Brigade, United States Regulars, arrived late on Monday night, April 27, off the port, but no attempt was made to land pending a conference between Admiral Fletcher and the general, which occurred next day.

On Wednesday, General Funston's soldiers, 4,000 strong, were landed and it was announced that on Thursday they would take over the control of the city.

Next day occurred, with most impressive and inspiring ceremonies, the transfer of the city of Vera Cruz from the navy to the army. The men of the navy went back to their ships, leaving behind them only the marines who went to Mexico on the transports and who remained ashore to support the army in policing the city and the surrounding territory. The people of the city had already begun to feel the good effects of American occupancy in the way of greater security to life and property and better sanitary conditions.

FIERCE FIGHTING AT TAMPICO

From Tampico came reports of fierce fighting about the

city, the rebels pushing their advance as far as possible. Carranza gave a shock to the adherents of the peace plan by issuing an order for 12,000 additional troops to go to the aid of the rebel forces.

Rear-Admiral Howard, in command of the United States fleet on the Pacific coast, reported that the rebels were active in their attempts to capture Mazatlan and other western cities.

A MILITARY GOVERNMENT

Orders sent to General Funston May 1 from Washington instructed him to set up a complete military government over the city of Vera Cruz and this he proceeded to do, the civil governor, Robert J. Kerr, relinquishing his office.

Bodies of Huertistas were seen in the vicinity of Vera Cruz during the week ending May 1, but no organized attack came from them, though many desultory shots were fired at the American outposts. On May 2 a company of General Maas' troops appeared at the waterworks pumping station outside the city and demanded the surrender of the marine guard. Their demand was of course refused and General Funston promptly sent strong reinforcements to guard the waterworks.

An armistice between the American and Huerta forces was understood to exist May 1, pending the result of mediatory efforts, although the Constitutionalists under Carranza refused to agree to any truce in their war upon Huerta and continued a fierce attack upon Tampico. But, despite the armistice, General Funston believed that more troops were needed at Vera Cruz and on May 5 it was announced at Washington that another brigade of approximately 4,000 troops would be despatched to the Mexican city forthwith.

It was also announced at Washington that no definite arrangements had been made with Huerta for a truce and that General Maas, who was said to be gathering a

force of 13,000 Federals at Saltillo, might attack Vera Cruz at any time. Carranza's refusal to agree to a general armistice had relieved General Maas from any obligation to notify General Funston of the termination of the tacit armistice which had existed for some days. He was at liberty under the rules of The Hague conventions and international law to attack whenever he saw fit. Under these circumstances the situation at Vera Cruz was regarded as critical. The American forces under General Funston had been distributed at strategical points inside and outside the city, and a strong guard was maintained at the waterworks, nine miles distant.

A number of Americans were reported held prisoners by General Maas outside of Vera Cruz and six hundred American refugees in the City of Mexico were endeavoring on May 5 to secure transportation to the coast. There was daily fighting at Tampico between the Constitutionalist and Federal forces, the latter holding the city, and grave fears were entertained for the safety of the oil wells in the vicinity.

At the National Palace in Mexico City, May 5, Huerta denied reports of his intention to resign and said: "What the people gave to me I will not relinquish." There were persistent reports at Vera Cruz of conspiracies against Huerta at the capital.

General Maas endeavored to secure the cooperation of General Villa, the Constitutionalist leader, in an attack upon the United States troops at Vera Cruz, but Villa positively refused to consider any alliance with the Huerta forces.

CHAPTER II

THE TAMPICO INCIDENT

The causes that led to the occupation of Vera Cruz by the United States were of a cumulative character. Trouble with the Huerta government had been foreseen for months, as it was surely brewing in consequence of repeated acts of an unfriendly character by Huerta officers and troops and the generally hostile treatment of Americans resident in Mexico.

A climax was reached in the city of Tampico on the afternoon of Thursday, April 9, 1914. An American squadron under Rear-Admiral Mayo lay in the harbor, and a paymaster and boat's crew were sent from the Dolphin to another vessel. Their boat was a gasoline launch, and after completing their errand they landed to secure a supply of gasoline. A Mexican Federal officer arrested the paymaster and part of the boat's crew in the streets soon after their landing and two of the men who had been left as boatkeepers were ordered out of the boat, at the stern of which flew the United States naval flag, and also placed under arrest. They were marched through the streets under guard and locked up in jail by officers of the Huerta forces occupying Tampico.

When they were released and allowed to go back to their ship Rear-Admiral Mayo, in command of the United States fleet in the harbor, made prompt demands for reparation on General Zaragoza, in command of the Huerta forces.

A SALUTE DEMANDED

An apology for the outrage, punishment of the offending officers, and a salute of twenty-one guns to the stars and stripes, to be fired within twenty-four hours, was the admiral's ultimatum.

The matter was referred to General Huerta, at the capital. He disavowed the act of his subordinates, made apology, and stated that the officer responsible for the arrest should be duly subjected to discipline. This might seem to have closed the incident, but an incident of this kind is usually concluded by the firing of a salute, indicative of respect for the sovereignty of a country which, through its uniformed forces, has been treated with indignity. Admiral Mayo demanded such a salute, but for some reason, General Huerta and his governmental and military chiefs decided to refuse to salute the flag of the United States, except under conditions not deemed appropriate by our authorities. For example, a full salute as closing a grave diplomatic incident requires the firing of twenty-one guns. The Mexicans, however, proposed to minimize the affair by a salute of five guns. All of which, in view of a vast country swept by the almost incredible horrors of civil warfare, seemed, in the words of a current writer, " very much like trifling over points of etiquette in the presence of death and destruction."

Huerta had just persuaded the banks of Mexico City to advance him $5,000,000 a month to pay his expenses, and this probably influenced his action, stiffening his resolve to resist all demands by the United States in order, if possible, to unite the Mexican people, Federals and Constitutionalists, in face of a foreign opponent.

Villa, fighting man of the Constitutional rebels of the north, had ordered all the Spanish residents out of his territory and his chief, Carranza, had answered with a snub the protest of the United States government. John

Lind, President Wilson's unofficial envoy in Mexico, had returned to Washington to make a final report of practical failure in his mission. He was decidedly embittered against Huerta, and naturally so.

AN INTOLERABLE SITUATION

By this time the entire Mexican situation had become intolerable. If not the arrest of the Dolphin's boat crew, some other trifle must have brought the crisis.

In the meantime, as if to add emphasis to the first insult, the mail orderly of the United States fleet in the harbor at Vera Cruz, going ashore in full uniform to get his mail, was arrested by the Mexican police.

These unavenged insults to the flag deeply incensed President Wilson at Washington. Acting on his instructions, Chargé O'Shaughnessy in Mexico City notified the Huerta government that Admiral Mayo's demands must be complied with in full. Through his foreign minister, Huerta replied that an apology and the punishment of the offending officers was sufficient reparation and all that he would grant. When Mr. O'Shaughnessy made a second attempt to see Huerta he was bluntly informed that he would not be received.

WARSHIPS ORDERED TO MEXICO

On Tuesday, April 14, after two conferences with his cabinet and with navy officials, President Wilson ordered the entire Atlantic and Pacific war fleets of the United States to concentrate in Mexican waters. That started fifteen battleships and about twenty-five auxiliary vessels for the eastern coast of Mexico, and fifteen cruisers and minor vessels for the west. Meanwhile Villa and his rebels won a big battle at San Pedro de Los Colonias, forty miles from Torreon, wiping out a force of 3,500 Huertistas. Later Villa captured Torreon.

Next day there were many conferences in Washington, with the purpose of getting the army ready to aid the

forces of the navy in Mexico. President Wilson conferred with the foreign affairs committee of the Senate and an official statement was issued setting forth that the outrages at Tampico and Vera Cruz were only two of many insults offered by the Huerta government to the government of the United States. Among the most serious of these were the holding up by Huerta censors of official dispatches sent by the State Department to Chargé O'Shaughnessy in Mexico City.

HUERTA'S VACILLATION

Alarmed by the developments and by the defeat of his troops at San Pedro, Huerta, on Thursday, April 16, announced that he would obey the demand of the United States government and salute the flag by firing twenty-one guns at Tampico. The decision of the dictator was received with relief by the Wilson administration, which had been striving to avoid anything approaching hostilities. But the battleships kept on steaming toward Mexican waters.

Overnight came another sudden change on the part of Huerta. The dictator announced that he would fire the salute demanded only on condition that each of his guns should be answered by an echoing shot from a United States battleship.

It was announced at Washington that as soon as the ships reached Mexico they would seize the Huerta gunboats guarding the harbor of Tampico and thus allow the forces of Villa and Carranza to take that city from Huerta. And the battle fleets were rapidly nearing the Mexican coasts.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S ULTIMATUM

On Saturday, April 18, President Wilson announced in Washington that unless Huerta fired the salute of twenty-one guns by 6 o'clock on Sunday evening he would on the following Monday personally lay the matter before Con-

gress and ask for authority to use the land and naval forces of the United States against Huerta. It was said that the presidential plan was to declare and enforce a " pacific blockade " against all the ports of Mexico.

At 8 o'clock on Sunday evening, April 19, the final reply came from Huerta. He would not agree to fire the salute demanded, and even denied that the United States flag was flying from the launch in Tampico's harbor when the sailors were taken from it.

President Wilson left Washington to spend Sunday, out of the city. American refugees from Mexico City began to arrive in large numbers at Vera Cruz.

It looked like war and in many parts of the United States war meetings were held and volunteers offered themselves to the government.

THE PRESIDENT BEFORE CONGRESS

On Monday, April 20, President Wilson appeared before Congress and asked for approval of his proposed action in using the army and navy against Huerta and his adherents. He disclaimed any possibility of making war on the Mexican people, or any idea of aggression or selfish aggrandizement.

Following is the full text of the president's message, delivered in person:

PRESIDENT WILSON'S APPEAL TO CONGRESS

Gentlemen of the Congress: It is my duty to call your attention to a situation which has arisen in our dealings with Gen. Victoriano Huerta at Mexico City, which calls for action, and to ask your advice and co-operation in acting upon it.

On the 9th of April a paymaster of the U. S. S. Dolphin landed at the Iturbide bridge landing at Tampico with a whale-boat and boat's crew, to take off certain supplies needed by his ship, and while engaged in loading the boat was arrested by an officer and squad of men of the army

of Gen. Huerta. Neither the paymaster nor any one of the boat's crew was armed. Two of the men were in the boat when the arrest took place and were obliged to leave it and submit to be taken into custody, notwithstanding the fact that the boat carried, both at her bow and at her stern, the flag of the United States.

The officer who made the arrest was proceeding up one of the streets of the town with his prisoners when met by an officer of higher authority, who ordered him to return to the landing and await orders, and within an hour and a half from the time of the arrest orders were received from the commander of the Huertista forces at Tampico for the release of the paymaster and his men.

APOLOGIZE AFTER RELEASE

The release was followed by apologies from the commander and later by an expression of regret by Gen. Huerta himself. Gen. Huerta urged that martial law obtained at the time at Tampico; that orders had been issued that no one should be allowed to land at the Iturbide bridge, and that our sailors had no right to land there.

Our naval commanders at the port had not been notified of any such prohibition, and, even if they had been, the only justifiable course open to the local authorities would have been to request the paymaster and his crew to withdraw and to lodge a protest with the commanding officer of the fleet.

Admiral Mayo regarded the arrest as so serious an affront that he was not satisfied with the apologies offered, but demanded that the flag of the United States be saluted with special ceremony by the military commander of the port.

CANNOT BE DEEMED TRIVIAL

The incident cannot be regarded as a trivial one, especially as two of the men arrested were taken from

the boat itself — that is to say, from the territory of the United States. But had it stood by itself it might have been attributed to the ignorance or arrogance of a single officer. Unfortunately, it was not an isolated case. A series of incidents have recently occurred which cannot but create the impression that the representatives of Gen. Huerta were willing to go out of their way to show disregard for the dignity and rights of this government and felt perfectly safe in doing what they pleased, making free to show in many ways their irritation and contempt.

A few days after the incident at Tampico an orderly from the U. S. S. Minnesota was arrested at Vera Cruz while ashore in uniform to obtain the ship's mail and was for a time thrown into jail. An official dispatch from this government to its embassy at Mexico City was withheld by the authorities of the telegraphic service until peremptorily demanded by our charge d'affaires in person.

So far as I can learn, such wrongs and annoyances have been suffered only to occur against representatives of the United States. I have heard of no complaints from other governments of similar treatment. Subsequent explanations and formal apologies did not and could not alter the popular impression, which it is possible it had been the object of the Huertista authorities to create, that the government of the United States was being singled out and might be singled out with impunity for slights and affronts in retaliation for its refusal to recognize the pretensions of Gen. Huerta to be regarded as the constitutional provisional president of the republic of Mexico.

DANGER OF THE SITUATION

The manifest danger of such a situation was that such offenses might grow from bad to worse until something happened of so gross and intolerable a sort as to lead directly and inevitably to armed conflict. It was necessary that the apologies of Gen. Huerta and his repre-

sentatives should go much further, that they should be such as to attract the attention of the whole population to their significance and such as to impress upon Gen. Huerta himself the necessity of seeing to it that no further occasion for explanations and professed regrets should arise. I, therefore, felt it my duty to sustain Admiral Mayo in the whole of his demand and to insist that the flag of the United States should be saluted in such a way as to indicate a new spirit and attitude on the part of the Huertistas.

Such a salute Gen. Huerta has refused, and I have come to ask your approval and support in the course I now purpose to pursue.

CAN'T BE FORCED INTO WAR

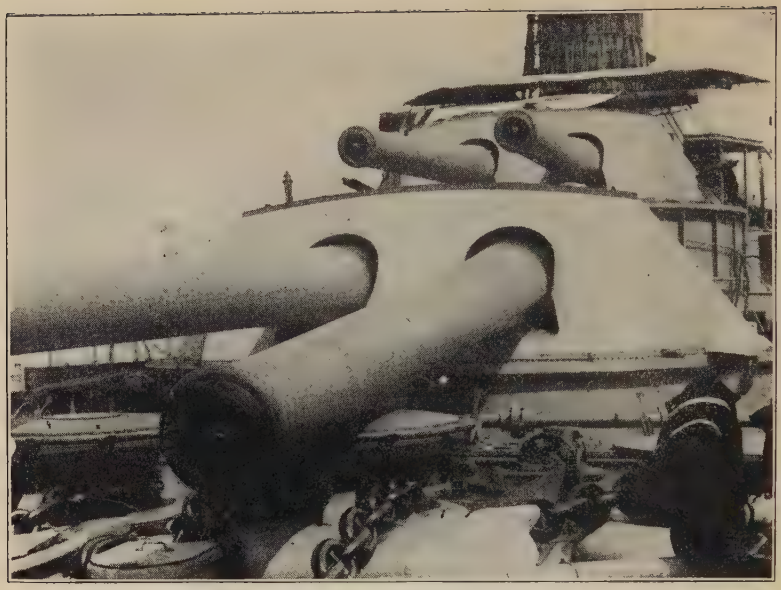
This government can, I earnestly hope, in no circumstances be forced into war with the people of Mexico. Mexico is torn by civil strife. If we are to accept the tests of its own constitution, it has no government. Gen. Huerta has set his power up in the City of Mexico, such as it is, without right and by methods for which there can be no justification. Only part of the country is under his control. If armed conflict should unhappily come as a result of this attitude of personal resentment toward this government, we should be fighting only Gen. Huerta and those who adhere to him and give him their support, and our object would be only to restore to the people of the distracted republic the opportunity to set up again their own laws and their own government.

But I earnestly hope that war is not now in question. I believe that I speak for the American people when I say that we do not desire to control in any degree the affairs of our sister republic.

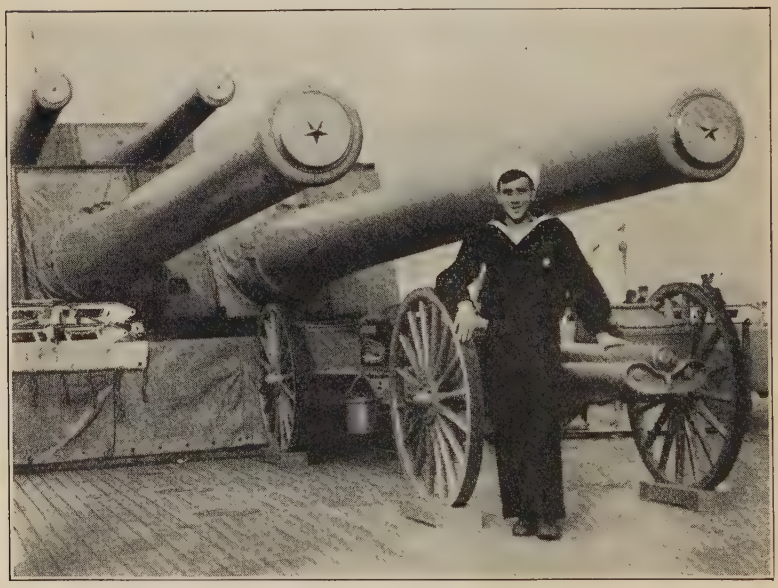
GENUINE FRIEND OF MEXICO

Our feeling for the people of Mexico is one of deep and genuine friendship, and everything that we have so

Rear Admiral Mayo, U. S. N., in command of squadron at Tampico, who demanded satisfaction for insult to American flag

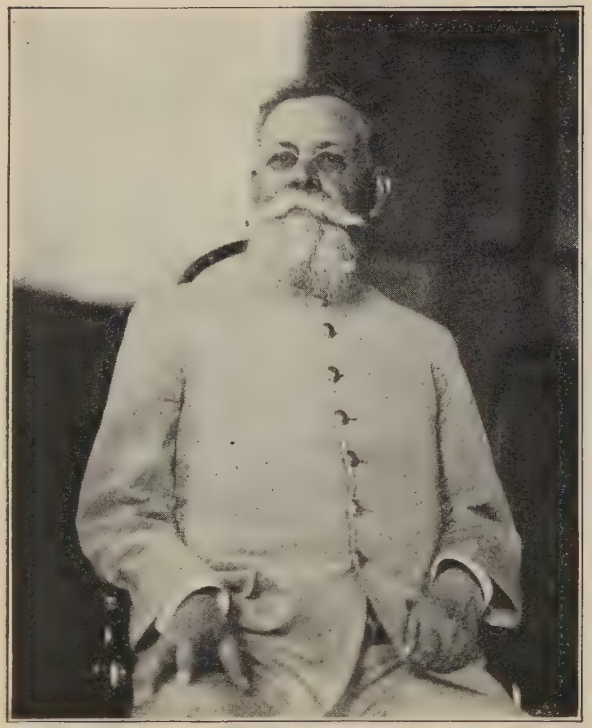


Big guns of the battleship "New York"

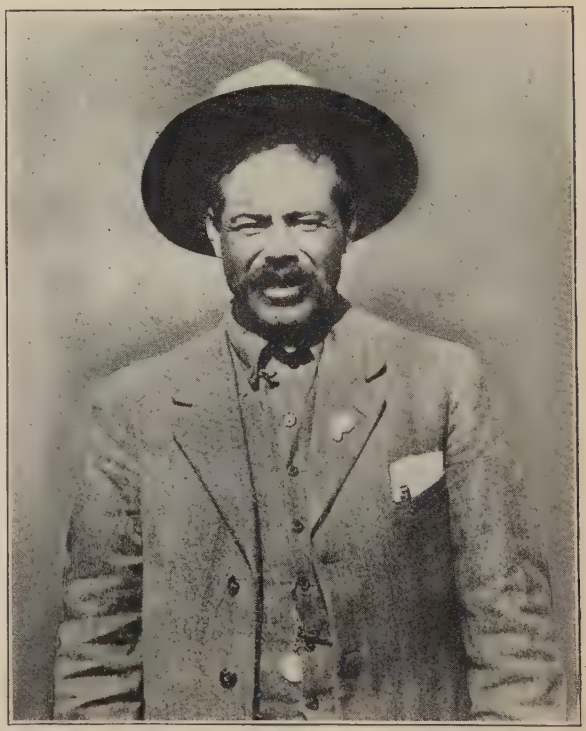


In readiness for action — main battery of the "Wyoming"

NELSON O'SHAUGHNESSY
United States chargé d'affaires at Mexico City during controversy with Huerta, who handed him his passports with expressions of personal regret



Venustiana Carranza, leader of the Constitutionalist movement against Huerta



General Francisco Villa, the fighting man of the Constitutionalists

far done or refrained from doing has proceeded from our desire to help them, not to hinder or embarrass them. We would not wish even to exercise the good offices of friendship without their welcome and consent.

The people of Mexico are entitled to settle their own domestic affairs in their own way and we sincerely desire to respect their right. The present situation need have none of the grave complications of interference if we deal with it promptly, firmly and wisely.

No doubt, I could do what is necessary in the circumstances to enforce respect for our government without recourse to the congress and yet not exceed my constitutional powers as president; but I do not wish to act in a matter possibly of so grave consequence except in close conference and co-operation with both the senate and the house.

TO USE FORCE AGAINST HUERTA

I, therefore, come to ask your approval that I should use the armed forces of the United States in such ways and to such an extent as may be necessary to obtain from Gen. Huerta and his adherents the fullest recognition of the rights and dignity of the United States, even amid the distressing conditions now unhappily obtaining in Mexico.

There can, in what we do, be no thought of aggression or of selfish aggrandizement. We seek to maintain the dignity and authority of the United States only because we wish always to keep our great influence unimpaired for the uses of liberty, both in the United States and wherever else it may be employed for the benefit of mankind.

DEBATE IN CONGRESS

In the House of Representatives there was sharp debate before the final passage at a night session of the resolution which "justified the use of the armed forces of the United States in enforcing certain demands against Vic-

toriano Huerta." It was supported by practically all the Democrats, by most of the Progressives, and opposed by thirty Republicans. The final vote was 337 in favor of the resolution and 37 against it.

DELAY IN THE SENATE

In the Senate there was some delay. Republican senators and some of the Democrats insisted that so serious a step ought not to be taken without giving to the world a more complete justification than the mere statement that Huerta had insulted the flag.

Then Senator Lodge introduced a substitute resolution declaring that a state of anarchy had long existed in Mexico, that American citizens had been murdered and their property destroyed, and that, disclaiming any hostility against the Mexican people, the United States was justified in using its armed forces for the protection of its people and the enforcement of its rights.

In the hope of hastening action, President Wilson personally visited the capitol Monday evening and conferred with his supporters. Shortly after midnight the Senate adjourned without completing the debate or passing any resolution.

Huerta issued a proclamation declaring that all aliens in his capital would be safeguarded. American merchant vessels were ordered to leave the port of Vera Cruz, and there was a rush of refugees from Tampico, Vera Cruz, and Mexico City.

On Monday night President Wilson, without waiting for the passage of the Senate resolution, sent orders to Rear-Admiral Fletcher to seize the custom house at Vera Cruz and hold it with a detachment of sailors and marines. The result was as described in the preceding chapter.

In the Senate at Washington a hot debate raged all day Tuesday over the wording of the resolution authorizing the use of armed force. Senator Root led the fight

for making the resolution express more than merely the indignation of the United States at insults to its flag and uniform. He and his adherents succeeded in cutting the name of Huerta out of the resolution. It finally passed by a vote of 72 to 13, after an all-night session, in the early hours of Wednesday morning. The text of the Senate substitute resolution, which was promptly accepted by the House, was as follows:

"In view of the facts presented by the president of the United States in his address delivered to the Congress in joint session the 20th day of April, 1914, in regard to certain affronts and indignities committed against the United States in Mexico, be it

"Resolved, That the president is justified in the employment of the armed forces of the United States to enforce his demands for unequivocal amends for affronts and indignities committed against the United States; be it further

"Resolved, That the United States disclaims any hostility to the Mexican people or any purpose to make war upon them."

SENATOR ROOT'S REASONS

In the course of his speech on the resolution Senator Elihu Root said:

"Lying behind the insult to the American flag are the lives of Americans destroyed, Americans reduced to poverty because of the destruction of their property. Lying behind it is a condition of anarchy in Mexico, a condition which makes it impossible to secure protection for American life and property. It is that which makes necessary the demand that public respect be paid the flag of the United States.

"There is our justification. It is a justification lying not in Victoriano Huerta or in his conduct alone, but in the universal conduct of affairs in Mexico and the real object to be attained by the course which we are

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asked to approve is not the gratification of personal pride; it is not the satisfaction of a government or of an admiral, it is the desire of the United States to protect its citizens under these conditions.

"If we omit from this resolution that we are to pass here tonight, the matters included in the substitute preamble we omit the real reasons behind the action. On the facts in the resolution as reported by the committee we would be everlastingly wrong. On the facts in the substitute we could rest before the world, and before history, secure.

"Ah, Mr. President," he said in a voice that sank almost to a whisper, and the galleries leaned forward breathlessly to hear; "the capture of Vera Cruz, the death of our American marines, the wounds and the suffering of those who live there tonight, demand something more, far more, than a formal insult, for justification. The recitals of the substitute preamble are weak in the face of death and suffering in Vera Cruz tonight. The substitute preamble is weak, but it gives formal, adequate grounds, for the great formidable movement of the great naval and military power of this government; it gives the justification that is needed."

It developed in Washington that Special Envoy John Lind had predicted to the committees of Congress that Vera Cruz and Tampico could be occupied without bloodshed and that the Carranza forces would approve such occupation.

O'SHAUGHNESSY HANDED PASSPORTS

On Wednesday, April 22, the day after the American forces landed at Vera Cruz, Mr. Nelson O'Shaughnessy, United States chargé d'affaires in the City of Mexico, was handed his passports. They were accompanied by a note from the Huerta secretary for foreign affairs, of which the following is a verbatim translation:

"Mr. Chargé d'Affaires: Assuredly your honor

knows that the marines of the American ships of war anchored off the port of Vera Cruz, availing themselves of the circumstance that the Mexican authorities had given them access to the harbor of the town because they considered their presence was of a friendly character, disembarked yesterday with their arms and uniforms and possessed themselves by surprise of the principal public buildings without giving time for the women and children in the streets, the sick, and other noncombatants, to place themselves in safety.

" This act was contrary to international usages. If these usages do not demand, as held by many states, a previous declaration of war, they impose at least the duty of not violating humane consideration or good faith by people whom the country which they are in has received as friends and who therefore should not take advantage of that circumstance to commit hostile acts.

" These acts of the armed forces of the United States I do not care to qualify in this note, out of deference to the fact that your honor personally has observed toward the Mexican government and people a most strictly correct conduct, so far as that has been possible to you in your character as the representative of a government with which we have been in such serious difficulties as those existing.

" Regarding the initiation of war against Mexico this ministry reserves to itself the right of presenting to other powers the events and considerations pertinent to this matter, in order that they as members of the concert of nations may judge of the conduct of the two nations and adopt an attitude which they may deem proper in view of this deplorable outrage upon our nation's sovereignty.

" The president of the Republic of Mexico has seen fit to terminate, as I have the honor to communicate to your honor, the diplomatic mission which your honor has until now discharged. You will have the goodness to retire from Mexican territory. To that end I inclose your pass-

port, at the same time informing you that, as is the diplomatic custom on such occasions, a special train will be at your disposal with a guard sufficient to protect your honor, your family, and your staff, although the Mexican people are sufficiently civilized to respect even without this protection your honor and those accompanying you.

" I take this opportunity to reiterate to your honor the assurances of my highest consideration.

" (Signed) Jose Lopez Portillo y Rojas."

MR. O'SHAUGHNESSY'S STORY

Here is Nelson O'Shaughnessy's own story of the negotiation with Huerta in the Mexican capital, following the Tampico incident, as he told it on his arrival at Vera Cruz, April 27, after being handed his passports by the provisional government:

" It became apparent early in the developments arising from the Tampico flag incident that the situation was fraught with ominous possibilities, although it was my opinion almost to the last minute that Huerta would recede from a position that made it impossible for Washington to adjust matters as Huerta wanted them adjusted.

" You must understand that had Huerta waived his insistence upon a return salute to the Mexican flag by the United States — which act would have implied a recognition by our government — the Tampico incident would have been unquestionably closed.

HUERTA LOSING PRESTIGE

" The situation was rapidly getting worse in the country and Huerta was growing less able to resist successfully the rebels, to say nothing of making headway against them.

" The loss of Torreon was a great blow to the Federal government, although it tried its best to minimize its importance. But it hurt, and hurt badly.

" When I received the first information of the arrest

of the Dolphin's sailors and of Admiral Mayo's demands — which, by the way, came to me first through the Mexican foreign office, which had been communicated with by General Zaragoza before my information from Washington reached me — it was too late to do anything.

" That was Friday, April 10, and according to the time limit fixed by Admiral Mayo, satisfaction had to be given by 6 o'clock that night.

FINDS DICTATOR ASLEEP

" Everyone who has had experience in dealing with Mexican officials knows how difficult it is to stir them to quick action under the most favorable conditions.

" After several hours' search I finally caught up with Huerta at his house, where he was taking a siesta. Not even my strongest representations of the extremity and urgency of the case could induce his aids to arouse him, so I was forced to go away and return again in an hour.

" When I finally did see Huerta, we discussed the Tampico incident most amicably. His expressions indicated a considerable displeasure that the arrest of the Dolphin's people should have been permitted.

" He gave me the impression that he was much incensed at the stupidity of the officer who was responsible for it, and who had added to Huerta's troubles by his blundering step.

FEARED OPEN BREAK

" It is interesting to note that, in spite of his frequent public explosions against our policy toward him and his outward attitude of defiance and indifference to anything we might do, Huerta was always very careful to allow nothing to be done that would bring about an open break between Washington and his government.

" Huerta sent for me and we talked for a long time. I went away with a distinct impression that he had receded from his position regarding recognition and that

he would come to a satisfactory understanding with my government, and I so communicated to Washington.

"Later I ascertained that I had apparently misunderstood what Huerta had said. This threw negotiations back to the original status; so we got nowhere.

THOUGHT UNITED STATES WAS BLUFFING

"I firmly believe that Huerta was skeptical that Washington would press matters to the point of armed occupation of either Tampico or Vera Cruz. I think he had probably the mental reservation that, if things grew too cloudy, he would draw back at the last moment.

"Palpably, he had not the slightest appreciation of the considerations which had prevented Washington from taking decisive steps in Mexico before this point had been reached."

TROOPS ORDERED TO VERA CRUZ

On Thursday night, April 23, President Wilson, yielding to the earnest appeals of the navy and army officers, ordered that the Fifth Brigade, United States Regular Infantry, should embark at Galveston for Vera Cruz. Four army transports were lying in Galveston harbor and the work of loading the 4,500 men and their equipment into the ships was begun at once. Brigadier General Frederick Funston was assigned to command the troops.

The transports sailed from Galveston at 5 o'clock Friday evening, carrying only the soldiers, their ammunition, and sufficient equipment for active service in the field.

Thursday evening Secretary of War Garrison sent orders to stop the delivery of ammunition and arms to the forces of Carranza and Villa across the Texas border. This order President Wilson, in his desire to confine hostilities to the Huerta sphere of influence and anxious not to offend Carranza, was inclined to cancel. He finally,

however, yielded to the military officials and allowed the embargo to stand. It developed that some 7,500 rifles and a large amount of ammunition stood ready for delivery to the rebels.

A resolution appropriating $500,000 to aid American refugees from Mexico, which was passed by the Senate on Thursday, was signed by President Wilson.

AMERICANS IN DANGER

The Huerta forces evacuated Nuevo Laredo, the Mexican town across the Rio Grande from Laredo, Tex., burning the city and making several attempts to destroy the international bridge across the river. There was some firing between the retiring Mexicans and troops and citizens on the American side of the river.

Reports came from Mexico City and from various points along the railroad that citizens of the United States had been taken from trains and were being held as hostages by order of Huerta. Secretary of State Bryan had word that one party of twenty, including one British citizen, had been dragged from a train at Tierra Blanca by Huerta soldiers and were in imminent danger of execution.

All day April 25, there were reports from many parts of Mexico that Americans were being prevented from leaving the country — in some instances dragged from trains and locked up in jail under orders from the Huerta government.

Fresh reports were received of riots in Mexico City. It was declared that in every large city in the Republic Americans were being detained as hostages. At Washington it was announced that Major-General Leonard Wood had been ordered to the Texas frontier to take general charge of operations.

Late in the afternoon of April 25 the ambassador from Brazil and the ministers from Argentina and Chile called on Secretary of State Bryan in Washington. The casual

announcement was made in a bulletin from the national capital and attracted little attention.

But a few hours later official announcement was made that President Wilson " had accepted the offer of Brazil, Argentina, and Chile to use their good offices in an attempt to bring about a peaceful and friendly settlement of the difficulty between the United States and Mexico."

CHAPTER III

MEDIATION BY DIPLOMATS

A surprise was in store for those who regarded war as inevitable, when on April 25 it was announced at Washington and immediately telegraphed broadcast over the country that President Wilson had accepted the good offices of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile for the mediation of the differences existing between the United States and "those who speak for the several elements of the Mexican people."

Although the offer made by the three South American countries did not reveal their plans, it was learned that they contemplate a broad settlement of the Mexican problem through the elimination of Huerta, upon which the United States had insisted from the beginning.

The note of acceptance, while agreeing to the suggestion, reservedly pointed out that an act of aggression by the military forces of Mexico or hostile demonstration toward Americans might upset hopes of immediate peace.

The offer of mediation, addressed to Secretary of State Bryan, was in the following terms:

"With the purpose of subserving the interest of peace and civilization in our continent and with the earnest desire to prevent any further bloodshed to the prejudice of the cordiality and union which have always surrounded the relations of the governments and the people of America, we, the plenipotentiaries of Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, duly authorized hereto, have the honor to tender to your excellency's government our good offices for the

peaceful and friendly settlement of the conflict between the United States and Mexico.

" This offer puts in due form the suggestions which we have had occasion to offer heretofore on this subject to the secretary, to whom we renew our highest and most distinguished consideration.

" Domicio Da Gama, Brazil.
" Romulo S. Naon, Argentina.
" Eduardo Suarez Mujica, Chile."

REPLY OF PRESIDENT WILSON

To the above President Wilson promptly returned the following reply:

" The government of the United States is deeply sensible of the friendliness, the good feeling, and the generous concern for the peace and welfare of America manifested in the joint note just received from your excellencies offering the good offices of your governments to effect if possible a settlement of the present difficulty between the government of the United States and those who now claim to represent our sister republic of Mexico.

" Conscious of the purpose with which the proffer is made, this government does not feel at liberty to decline it.

" Its own chief interest is in the peace of America, the cordial intercourse of her republics and their people, and the happiness and prosperity which can spring only out of frank, mutual understanding and the friendship which is created by common purpose.

" The generous offer of your governments is therefore accepted.

" This government hopes most earnestly that you may find those who speak for the several elements of the Mexican people willing and ready to discuss terms of satisfactory and therefore permanent settlement. If you should find them willing, this government will be glad to take up with you for discussion in the frankest and most

conciliatory spirit any proposals that may be authoritatively formulated, and will hope that they may prove feasible and prophetic of a new day of mutual co-operation and confidence in America.

"This government feels bound in candor to say that its diplomatic relations with Mexico being for the present severed, it is not possible for it to make sure of an uninterrupted opportunity to carry out the plan of intermediation which you propose.

"It is, of course, possible that some act of aggression on the part of those who control the military forces of Mexico might oblige the United States to act to the upsetting of the hopes of immediate peace, but this does not justify us in hesitating to accept your generous suggestion.

"We shall hope for the best results within a brief time, enough to relieve our anxiety lest most ill considered hostile demonstrations should interrupt negotiations and disappoint our hopes of peace."

WHY THE PLAN WAS ACCEPTED

President Wilson accepted mediation for the following reasons:

1. It offered a hope of peace.
2. It showed the world that we are sincere in the effort to avert war.
3. It might modify the sentiment of South America, now strongly against the United States, even if no practical results flowed from it.
4. As the United States and Mexico are both signatories of The Hague conventions, it was incumbent on this government to observe the terms of those conventions.
5. It is imposed upon this government by the treaty of 1848 between the United States and Mexico, which prescribes that in case of any difference a resort shall not be made to reprisals, aggression, or hostility of any kind

without recourse to arbitration either by a commission composed of citizens of both countries or by a friendly power.

AMERICAN TERMS DEFINITE

Prior to the formal acceptance of the mediation proposed there was a conference at the White House between the President, Secretary of State Bryan, Senators Stone and Shively, Democratic members, and Senator Lodge, Republican member, respectively, of the Senate foreign relations committee, and Representatives Flood and Cooper of the House foreign affairs committee.

At this conference it was determined:

1. That the mediation should not be limited to General Huerta, but should be extended to General Carranza, General Villa, and General Zapata.

2. That, as a condition of the cessation of warlike measures by the United States:

(a) Huerta should be required to resign.

(b) An orderly government should be set up.

(c) Peace and order should be established in Mexico.

(d) Suitable reparation must be made for all insults to the American flag.

PROPOSAL SENT TO HUERTA

The Brazilian, Argentine, and Chilean envoys transmitted the United States' acceptance of their proposal to the Spanish ambassador, who immediately sent it by cable to the Spanish legation at Mexico City for presentation to General Huerta.

General Carranza, head of the Mexican Constitutionalists, was also informed of it through his representatives at Washington.

The three diplomats announced that no further steps would be taken by them until replies had been received from the leaders of the Mexican factions.

ARMY PLANS NOT STOPPED

Coincidently with the acceptance of the offer of mediation, administration officials announced there would be no cessation of preparations by the army and navy for future emergencies and no orders would be issued to the naval forces at Vera Cruz or the ships at sea changing original plans.

ACCEPTANCE BY HUERTA

On Sunday, April 26, it was announced in Washington by the Spanish ambassador that he had received unofficial advices from Mexico that Huerta would accept the offer of good offices from the ambassador of Brazil and the ministers of Chile and Argentina, which had already been accepted by President Wilson. It was later learned that Huerta accepted the "principle" of the mediation proposed.

On the same day came word that United States Consul Hanna had been arrested and locked up by Huerta adherents at Monterey, Mexico, while 2,700 American refugees from Tampico and Vera Cruz reached Galveston, Tex., by steamer. They told stories of being insulted and robbed by Mexicans, both federals and rebels, threats and torture being used in some instances to force the production of more money.

The news that President Wilson had accepted the offer of the three republics was received with much gratification all over Latin America. The administration was assured that it would have the support of Congress in its efforts to prevent war.

Reports from Mexico City that the foes of Huerta were active in his capital were the chief developments of Monday, April 27. It was even rumored that the dictator, frightened by threats of assassination, had taken refuge in one of the foreign embassies and that his government was in imminent danger of an uprising.

Hundreds of American refugees sailed from Vera Cruz for various ports in the United States.

On April 29 it was reported that General Carranza, chief of the Mexican rebels, had accepted in principle the offer of arbitration. But later in the week he balked at the plan, refusing to cease his activities against Huerta or to entertain any plan of mediation that involved even temporary recognition of the Huerta government. European powers were reported to be bringing great pressure to bear on Huerta to force him to retire permanently.

On Thursday, April 30, word was received at Washington that Huerta, in answer to the request of the South American arbitrators, was willing to agree to an armistice pending the result of the negotiations. On May 1 Carranza positively declined to entertain the idea of an armistice or even of a temporary truce. The mediators therefore planned to continue their negotiations despite the recurrence of hostilities between the Mexican federal forces and their Constitutionalist opponents. It was announced by Secretary of State Bryan on May 5 that the three mediators would meet at Niagara Falls, Canada, May 18, to confer with representatives of the parties to the controversy.

THE POLICY OF MEDIATION

Late in 1913 the co-operation of the three Latin American republics was urged as the only feasible means of establishing stable conditions in Mexico. Representative Kahn, of California, was the originator of the suggestion. On August 10, 1913, he said: "The Mexican situation is the concern of every patriotic American citizen. The formulation of a definite policy by the administration is eagerly awaited by the civilized world. At this juncture the republics of Brazil, Argentina and Chile should be asked to co-operate with us in whatever steps we may take to bring about a condition of peace in Mexico."

On October 24, 1913, in Rio de Janeiro, Theodore

Rear Admiral Badger, U. S. N., in command of North Atlantic Fleet when Vera Cruz was occupied

President Wilson and his Cabinet

Using the heliograph for signaling

Sending a wireless message from the field

Blanquet Huerta Diaz

General Huerta and his principal supporters. This picture was taken in the National Palace, City of Mexico, on the eve of Felix Diaz' departure for Japan, which refused to receive him as Huerta's representative.

Roosevelt gave the policy world-wide significance in his address before the University of Brazil. He said:

"The United States does not wish the territory of its neighbors. It does wish their confidence. If ever, as regards any country, intervention does unfortunately become necessary, I hope that wherever possible it will be a joint intervention by such powers (Brazil, Argentina and Chile), without thought of the selfish aggrandizement of any of them, and for the common good of the western world."

POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES

President Woodrow Wilson on his inauguration in 1913 issued a formal statement of the policy which the administration proposed to follow with respect to the republics of Central and South America. The statement follows:

"One of the chief objects of my administration will be to cultivate the friendship and deserve the confidence of our sister republics of Central and South America and to promote in every proper and honorable way the interests which are common to the peoples of the two continents. I earnestly desire the most cordial understanding and co-operation between the peoples and leaders of America and therefore deem it my duty to make this brief statement.

"Co-operation is possible only when supported at every turn by the orderly process of just government based on law, not upon arbitrary or irregular force. We hold, as I am sure all thoughtful leaders of republican government everywhere hold, that just government rests always upon the consent of the governed and that there can be no freedom without order based upon law and upon the public conscience and approval.

"We shall look to make these principles the basis of mutual intercourse, respect and helpfulness between our sister republics and ourselves. We shall lend our influ-

ence of every kind to the realization of these principles in fact and practice, knowing that disorder, personal intrigue and defiance of constitutional rights weaken and discredit government and injure none so much as the people who are unfortunate enough to have their common life and common affairs tainted and disturbed. We can have no sympathy with those who seek to seize the power of government to advance their own personal interests or ambition. We are the friends of peace, but we know that there can be no lasting or stable peace in such circumstances. As friends, therefore, we shall prefer those who act in the interest of peace and honor, who protect private rights and respect the restraints of constitutional provision. Mutual respect seems to us the indispensable foundation of friendship between states, as between individuals.

" The United States has nothing to seek in Central and South America except the lasting interests of the peoples of the two continents, the security of governments intended for the people and for no special group or interest, and the development of personal and trade relationships between the two continents which shall redound to the profit and advantage of both and interfere with the rights and liberties of neither.

" From these principles may be read so much of the future policy of this government as it is necessary now to forecast, and in the spirit of these principles, I may, I hope, be permitted with as much confidence as earnestness to extend to the governments of all the republics of America the hand of genuine disinterested friendship and to pledge my own honor and that of my colleagues to every enterprise of peace and amity that a fortunate future may disclose."

THE MONROE AND DRAGO DOCTRINES

The " Monroe Doctrine " was enunciated by President Monroe in his message to congress, December 2, 1823.

Referring to steps taken to arrange the respective rights of Russia, Great Britain and the United States on the northwest coast of this continent, the president went on to say:

"In the discussions to which this interest has given rise, and in the arrangements by which they may terminate, the occasion has been deemed proper for asserting, as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power. We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintain it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."

THE DRAGO DOCTRINE

When in the winter of 1902-03, Germany, Britain and Italy blockaded the ports of Venezuela in an attempt to make the latter country settle up its debts, Dr. L. F. Drago, a noted jurist of Argentina, maintained that force cannot be used by one power to collect money owing to its citizens by another power. Prominence was given to the contention by the fact that it was officially upheld

by Argentina and favored by other South American republics. The principle embodied has become generally known as the "Drago doctrine."

STRENGTH OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY MARCH 20, 1914

Regular Army: Officers, 4,933; enlisted men, 92,426.
Philippine Scouts: Officers, 180; enlisted men, 5,732.
Militia: Officers, 9,142; enlisted men, 112,710.
Regular Navy: Officers, 3,293; enlisted men, 49,854.
Marine Corps: Officers, 345; enlisted men, 9,921.
Naval Militia: Officers, 615; enlisted men, 7,185.

In the regular army the infantry consists of thirty regiments of three battalions each, and each battalion falls into four companies. The cavalry has fifteen regiments of three squadrons. The field artillery comprises six regiments, each of six batteries; of these two regiments are light artillery, two mountain artillery, one field artillery, and one horse artillery. To each battery are allotted four guns firing a 15-pound shell, and eight wagons.

The militia is a body of voluntary state troops which the president can call out for service within the country or outside of it.

MEXICAN ARMY AND NAVY

At the present time (May, 1914) the Mexican army has only a paper strength, as a considerable part of the regular army in the north has gone over to the Constitutional camp. The official figures on the organization of the army are:

Peace Strength: 107 generals, 6,236 officers, 49,332 men.

War Strength: Estimated at from 50,000 to 84,000 of all ranks.

The army consists of 30 battalions of infantry, 18 regiments of cavalry, 1 regiment of horse artillery, 2 regiments of field artillery, and 1 of mountain guns, etc.

Map of Mexico, showing the National Railways, also Atlantic and Pacific Navigation Routes.

Each artillery regiment consists in time of peace of four batteries, in time of war raised to six.

The national guard is practically without training or organization and would be very difficult to mobilize.

Mauser rifles (1901 model) are used by the regular infantry and cavalry, but the reserves use the old Remington 1893 model. The artillery is fairly well supplied with Schneider-Canet quick-firing guns. Recently, the Mexican government has made heavy purchases of guns, chiefly rifles, in Japan. Most of the ammunition used is made in Mexican arsenals.

The navy is almost a negligible feature. There were until July, 1913, five gunboats, but one of these was destroyed by the Constitutionalists in the harbor of Guaymas.

FORCES ENGAGED IN UNITED STATES WARS

The military and naval forces employed by the government since 1775 have been as follows:

War	*Date*	*Total*
Revolution	1775-83	309,791
Northwestern Indian	1790-95	8,983
France	1798-1800	4,593
Tripoli	1801-05	3,330
Indian (Harrison)	1811-13	910
War of 1812	1812-15	576,622
Creek Indian	1813-14	13,781
Seminole	1817-18	6,911
Winnebago (Wis.)	1827	1,416
Sac and Fox (Ill.)	1831	....
Black Hawk	1832	6,465
Cherokee removal	1833-39	9,494
Seminole (Fla.)	1835-42	41,122
Sabine Indian	1836-37	4,429
Creek (Ala.)	1836-37	13,418
"Patriot" (frontier)	1838-39	1,500

War	*Date*	*Total*
Seminole (Fla.)	1842-58	....
Mexico	1846-48	112,230
Cayuse Indian (Ore.)	1848	1,116
Texas Indian	1849-56	4,243
Apache (Utah)	1849-55	2,561
California Indian	1849-55	265
Utah Indian	1851-53	540
Oregon Washington Indian	1851-56	5,145
Comanche	1854	502
Seminole	1855-58	2,687
Civil War	1861-66	2,778,304
Spanish-American	1898-99	312,523
Philippine	1899-1902	140,038
Pekin (China) Expedition	1900-01	6,913
Total		4,371,839

The total in this table includes re-enlistments. The total number of individuals is estimated at 3,304,993, of whom 2,213,363 served in the Civil War.

AMERICAN LOSSES IN SPANISH AND PHILIPPINE WARS FROM WOUNDS OR DISEASE

	Officers	*Men*
May 1, 1898, to June 30, 1899	224	6,395
June 30, 1899, to July 1, 1900	74	1,930
July 1, 1900, to June 30, 1901	57	1,932

SHIPS OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY

The following are the vessels of the United States navy available for foreign service, coast defense, etc.:

First Class Battleships

Alabama, 11,552 tons; Arkansas, 26,000; Connecticut, 16,000; Delaware, 20,000; Florida, 21,825; Georgia, 14,948; Idaho, 13,000; Illinois, 11,552; Indiana, 10,288;

Iowa, 11,346; Kansas, 16,000; Kearsarge, 11,520; Kentucky, 11,520; Louisiana, 16,000; Maine, 12,500; Massachusetts, 10,288; Michigan, 16,000; Minnesota, 16,000; Mississippi, 13,000; Missouri, 12,500; Nebraska, 14,948; New Hampshire, 16,000; New Jersey, 14,948; North Dakota, 20,000; Ohio, 12,500; Oregon, 10,288; Rhode Island, 14,948; South Carolina, 16,500; Utah, 21,825; Vermont, 16,000; Virginia, 14,948; Wisconsin, 11,552; Wyoming, 26,000. Also, just completed, the New York, 27,500 tons; Oklahoma, 27,500; and Texas, 27,000. Each of these is armed with ten 14-inch and twenty-one 5-inch guns.

Armed Cruisers

Brooklyn, 9,215 tons; California, 13,680; Colorado, 13,680; Maryland, 13,680; Montana, 14,500; North Carolina, 14,500; Pittsburgh, 13,680; Saratoga, 8,150; South Dakota, 13,680; Tennessee, 14,500; Washington, 14,500; West Virginia, 13,680.

Protected Cruisers

Albany, 3,430 tons; Baltimore, 4,413; Boston, 3,000; Charleston, 9,700; Chattanooga, 3,200; Chicago, 4,500; Cincinnati, 3,183; Cleveland, 3,200; Columbia, 7,350; Denver, 3,200; Des Moines, 3,200; Galveston, 3,200; Milwaukee, 9,700; Minneapolis, 7,350; New Orleans, 3,430; Olympia, 5,865; Raleigh, 3,183; San Francisco, 4,083; St. Louis, 9,700; Tacoma, 3,200; Topeka, 2,255.

Unprotected Scout Cruisers

Birmingham, 3,750 tons; Chester, 3,750; Salem, 3,750.

Unprotected Cruisers

Marblehead, 2,072 tons; Montgomery, 2,072.

Torpedo Boat Destroyers

Bainbridge, Barry, Cassin, Cummings, Henley, Jarvis, Maynart, Ammen, Beale, Burrows, Chauncey, Dale, Decatur, Drayton, Fanning, Flusser, Hopkins, Hull, Jenkins,

Jouett, Lamson, Lawrence, Macdonough, McCall, Monaghan, Patterson, Paulding, Paul Jones, Perkins, Perry, Preble, Preston, Reid, Roe, Smith, Sterett, Stewart, Terry, Trippe, Truxtun, Walke, Warrington, Whipple Worden.

The destroyers range in tonnage from 420 to 742 tons.

COAST DEFENSE VESSELS

Monitors

Amphitrite, 3,990 tons; Cheyenne, 3,225; Miantonomoh, 3,990; Monadnock, 3,990; Monterey, 4,084; Ozark, 3,225; Tallahassee, 3,225; Terror, 3,990; Tonopah, 3,225.

Torpedo Boats

Bagley, Bailey, Barney, Biddle, Blakely, Craven, Davis, Dahlgren, DeLong, DuPont, Farragut, Foote, Fox, Goldsborough, Gwin, Mackenzie, Manley, Morris, Rodgers, Shubrick, Somers, Stockton, Stringham, Thornton, Tingey, Wilkes.

Other Vessels

Besides the vessels named there are in the United States navy over 30 gunboats of varying tonnage up to 1,710 tons, wooden cruisers, transports, supply ships, hospital ships, a number of converted yachts, and nearly 30 colliers, mostly of very large tonnage.

In addition to the above, there are under construction and authorized 4 battleships, 17 torpedo boat destroyers, 26 submarines, 3 gunboats, 2 colliers, 3 tenders to torpedo vessels, 1 transport and 1 supply ship.

STRENGTH OF U. S. MILITIA

The present strength of the organized militia of the United States, including officers and men, is approximately 120,000, according to the latest returns from adjutants general of the different states to the war department. These civilian soldiers are divided as follows:

Alabama	2,569	Nebraska	1,172
Arizona	522	New Hampshire	1,252
Arkansas	1,359	Nevada (mustered out)	1,906
California	3,612	New Jersey	4,392
Colorado	1,446	New Mexico	648
Connecticut	2,641	New York	15,957
Delaware	482	North Carolina	2,568
District of Columbia	1,646	North Dakota	629
Florida	1,220	Ohio	6,140
Georgia	2,898	Oklahoma	952
Hawaii	465	Oregon	1,467
Idaho	840	Pennsylvania	10,534
Illinois	5,914	Rhode Island	1,358
Indiana	2,476	South Carolina	1,909
Iowa	2,981	South Dakota	679
Kansas	1,824	Tennessee	1,834
Kentucky	2,013	Texas	2,561
Louisiana	1,142	Utah	354
Maine	1,448	Vermont	845
Maryland	1,972	Virginia	2,699
Massachusetts	5,793	Washington	1,238
Michigan	2,750	West Virginia	1,383
Minnesota	2,942	Wisconsin	2,903
Mississippi	1,443	Wyoming	688
Missouri	3,576		
Montana	610		

THE PANAMA CANAL

A dispatch from Panama April 20 stated that only in case of urgent necessity could battleships use the Panama Canal in proceeding to the blockade of the Mexican Pacific ports. This was made plain by Governor Goethals. But he declared that if the United States government insisted he could speed up the work on the Cucaracha slide in order to obtain a forty-five foot channel. He could, he said, also demolish the Empire Bridge across the canal and tear out the railway trestle at

Paraiso, so as to make the canal available for the largest vessels of war in a very short time.

DEFENSES OF VERA CRUZ

Prior to the occupation of Vera Cruz by the United States, the defenses of that city and Tampico were described as follows:

In the event that the United States fleet had been forced to bombard the ports of Tampico and Vera Cruz the latter city will be the only Mexican port on the Gulf which could properly defend itself against such an attack. The batteries which lie hidden in the ancient niches of the fortress on the island of San Juan de Ulua, which guards the outer portions of the harbor of Vera Cruz, would be the only means of keeping an enemy from successfully taking the Bay of Vera Cruz, which would give the invaders entrance to the city and start an army on its way to Mexico City.

San Juan de Ulua was built originally by the Spaniards and stands at the present day a cluster of white stone buildings marked by hurricane winds and former battles. The low white buildings which spread out about a quarter of a mile north and south about a mile from the mainland are individually pointed out by the natives, who tell terrible stories of the dungeons and of the fierce penalties inflicted on the military prisoners and felons sent there.

Porfirio Diaz, Madero and Huerta always found it advisable to keep San Juan garrisoned with good guns and loyal troops. During all the rebellions either the Bravos, the Morelos or the Zaragoza, the only three ships of any importance which the Mexican navy can boast of, kept a permanent station close by the island. The northern end of the island is taken up by a signal station which commands a view of all incoming steamers many miles out. Here, also, the government has located a local observatory.

The maximum of the batteries which mount San Juan

do not exceed three ten-inch guns which command the outer harbor entrance, and several smaller cannon, with perhaps half a dozen rapid fire land pieces, and usually from 500 to 800 men.

The second fortification lies about half a mile from the Custom-house wharf off toward the southwestern part of the city of Vera Cruz and is known as Baluarte de Santiago. This fortress, which also remains from the days of Spain in Mexico, is always kept in the trim condition that the island fortress knows. In case of an attack it could, along with the outer defenses, give a pretty fair fight before the city would finally surrender. Baluarte de Santiago was built originally for the purpose of withstanding a land attack upon Vera Cruz, but in the last three years the Mexican government has deemed it more advisable to strengthen its defenses.

THE CHANNEL AT TAMPICO

Tampico would quickly fall into the hands of a strong naval force. Persons familiar with the port point out only one highly improbable incident which might turn the tables for the Mexicans if the fleet steamed up on the city with the intention of a bombardment. In order to get into the roadstead off Tampico all steamers inward bound have to pass through a channel typically Mexican which leads into the Panuco River. This channel, which is guarded on either side by a small lighthouse, is scarcely a quarter of a mile in width, and during the season of the norther, which lasts until the early part of May, steamers are compelled to ride out the storm at sea rather than to chance or risk attempting to run the channel, which on such occasions cannot be depended upon for depth with large steamers.

Often the storm lasts several days, with a wind blowing 100 miles per hour, kicking up an immense sea. The only possible way, some critics point out, to destroy the

American ships would be to destroy the lights and depend on a norther.

It is recounted among shipping men at Tampico that the only steamer which ever came through the channel safely in a storm was manned by an American crew and skipper. This was about two years ago, when Captain Michael O'Keefe of the Ward liner Seguranca took the vessel through in a raging storm and the Mexicans talked about his feat for months after. A German vessel which followed went aground on the beach.

PRESIDENT MC KINLEY ON MEDIATION

President McKinley's reply to the ambassadors of Europe, who, on April 6, 1898, tendered their good offices to bring about peace between Spain and the United States was as follows:

"The government of the United States recognizes the good will which has prompted the friendly communication of the representatives of Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy and Russia, as set forth in the address of your excellencies, and shares the hope therein expressed that the outcome of the situation in Cuba may be the maintenance of peace between the United States and Spain by affording the necessary guarantees for the re-establishment of order in the island, so terminating the chronic condition of disturbance there, which so deeply injures the interests and menaces the tranquillity of the American nation by the character and consequence of the struggle thus kept up at our doors, besides shocking its sentiment of humanity.

"The government of the United States appreciates the humanitarian character of the communication now made in behalf of the powers named and for its part is confident that equal appreciation will be shown for its own earnest and unselfish endeavors to fulfill a duty to humanity by ending a situation the indefinite prolongation of which has become insufferable."

CHAPTER IV

THE REVOLUTION OF 1910-14

Recent events in Mexico since the outbreak of what is generally known as the Revolution of 1910 have been of an intensely dramatic character and followed one another in rapid succession.

When General Porfirio Diaz was elected president of Mexico in June, 1910, his opponents began to plan his overthrow, and in November of that year they organized a revolution and began fighting both in the south and the north.

Francisco I. Madero was active among the rebels and on November 23 proclaimed himself "provisional president of Mexico." Fighting continued until May 25, 1911, when President Diaz resigned and went to Europe. Francisco de la Barra was made provisional president and served until October, when Madero was elected to the office of president.

Madero represented the opposition to the autocracy of Porfirio Diaz. But he himself had enemies who charged him with using the same methods as his predecessor. Among them were General Pascuel Orozco, Emilio Vasquez Gomez, General Geronimo Trevino and General Felix Diaz, a nephew of the deposed president. These men kept the country in a generally disturbed condition, though Madero appeared to have control of the situation.

On October 16, 1912, General Felix Diaz with 500 men took possession of Vera Cruz, but within a week he and his men were captured, without a struggle, by the Federal troops. Two of his officers were tried by court-

martial and shot, and he was condemned to meet the same fate. Sentence was suspended, but he remained in prison until released by a military uprising in the City of Mexico, February 9, 1913.

The name of Diaz, by the way, has retained a good deal of potency in Mexico and throughout the revolutionary days of the last few years there have been recurrent rumors of a possibility of the recall of Porfirio Diaz from his refuge in Paris to bring peace to his distracted country. But the age of the former president and his probable antipathy to re-engage in internecine strife have brought all such proposals to naught. His nephew, Felix, has figured at intervals throughout the revolution down to the present time.

The mutiny in the City of Mexico was led by students from the military school at Tlalpam, a suburb. They took possession of a powder magazine early in the morning of February 9, and then went to the prisons where General Felix Diaz and General Bernardo Reyes were confined and released them. Accompanied by these leaders, and followed by crowds shouting "Death to Madero!" the mutineers proceeded to the Plaza de la Constitution in front of the National Palace. Here they were joined by portions of several cavalry and infantry regiments.

In front of the palace about 500 troops loyal to Madero were drawn up and firing began as soon as the mutineers appeared.

DEATH OF GENERAL REYES

One of the first to fall was General Reyes, who was killed by a rifle ball through the head. Soldiers stationed on the roof of the palace and in its windows kept up a fusillade, while machine guns were also brought into play against the mutinous troops. The palace being thus strongly defended, General Diaz, who had taken command of the mutineers, withdrew and with his men

marched to the Arsenal, distant about a mile west from the National Palace.

The Arsenal was attacked and soon surrendered to the rebels and they took possession of the Madero government's reserve artillery, many rifles and large quantities of ammunition. The Arsenal was then used as the headquarters of General Diaz. Belem prison, near the Arsenal, was also seized and the prisoners turned loose. The artillery from Tacubaya came in at this time and joined the rebels.

General Villar, military commander of the capital, remained loyal to Madero. He was wounded at the National Palace, and was replaced by General Victoriano Huerta, who had charge of President Madero's forces until February 18. On that date Huerta arrested Madero and was himself proclaimed provisional president of the Republic.

The first day's fighting in the city resulted in the death of over 500 persons, including 170 women and 200 private citizens who were killed in their houses or in the streets.

THE TEN DAYS' FIGHT

On February 10, the day following the outbreak, the city was comparatively quiet. But the next day fighting was resumed and did not cease except at short intervals until February 19. In that time, so far as known, nearly 3,000 persons were killed and about 7,000 wounded. Several Americans, including two women, lost their lives. The period is generally known as "the ten days' fight."

Most of the victims were non-combatants — men, women and children — who were unable to escape from the zone of danger. Nearly all parts of the city were in the line of fire, as the projectiles from modern, high-powered guns reached everywhere.

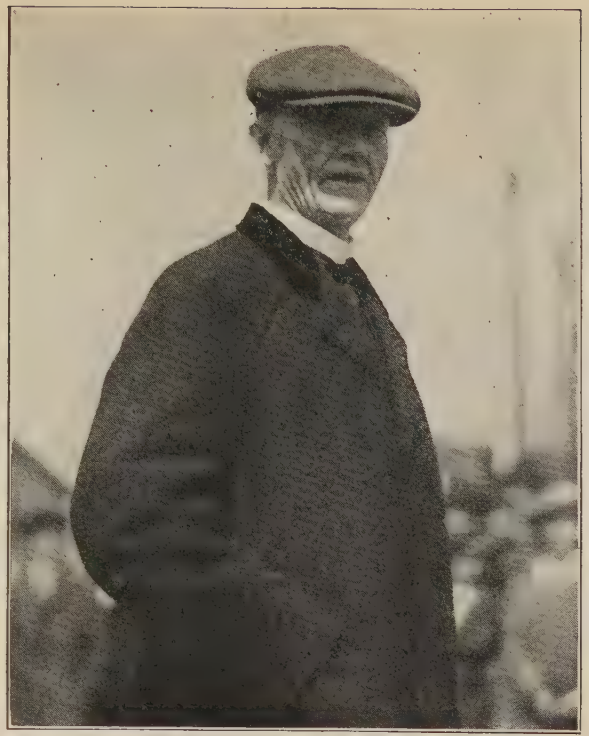
The situation was unique. The opposing forces occu-

pied two large buildings about a mile apart, and fired at each other across the center of the city. The finest business district and also a part of the best residence district were in the line of fire and few buildings escaped serious damage. Business houses, schools, churches, convents, public structures and private homes were pierced by shells and bullets. The American embassy building was frequently struck and its occupants, including the American ambassador, had narrow escapes from death. The American consulate suffered even more than the embassy and finally had to be abandoned.

All large buildings became conspicuous targets. Some of them, like the unfinished National Theater at the east end of the Alameda, the Young Men's Christian Association building near the Arsenal, and the Mutual Life Insurance building, were frequently struck by shot and shell. Many of the victims met their death in the Alameda, the beautiful park at the east end of the Paseo de la Reforma, which is one of the famous streets of the world. The American Club was riddled with bullets and shells and all but demolished. The cable office was also struck frequently, but the operators remained at their places throughout the whole of the fighting and continued to send the news and commercial despatches though their lives were in danger.

FIGHTING IN THE STREETS

Most of the shooting was done from the shelter of the Arsenal, the National Palace and other buildings, but skirmishes in the streets were frequent. The rebels commanded all the approaches to the Arsenal and also had outposts in the western part of the city to prevent attacks from the rear. The Federals planted batteries in the Zocalo, the Alameda, the Paseo de la Reforma, and at other points to the east and north. Detachments of



Hon. John Lind, personal envoy of President Wilson in Mexico, who negotiated fruitlessly with Huerta and watched developments from Vera Cruz

Off for Mexico

American recruits in practice drill at Fort Bliss, Tex.

City of Mexico students and business men drafted by Huerta in his dire emergency, caused by fear of American invasion

National Palace, City of Mexico

Felix Diaz, nephew of the famous president, Porfirio Diaz, and once a popular idol

Huerta at the banquet board. In private life he is a successful contractor and builder

rurales were sent by Madero against the rebels, but could make no headway against their machine guns.

General Diaz' riflemen and artillerists proved to be expert marksmen. They were well supplied with range-finders and had an ample supply of ammunition. No general attack was made by either side, because neither of the opposing forces felt able to rush the other without incurring great loss of life and the risk of utter disaster.

CITIZENS REMAINED QUIET

During the bombardment there was no rioting and no crowds appeared in the streets. Order was maintained as usual and few robberies were committed. The general sympathy of the people, however, was with the mutineers and against Madero.

On February 14 and 15, efforts were made to secure the resignation of President Madero, but he refused to listen to any suggestions to that effect, saying that he was willing to arbitrate or do anything that a man might do honestly and properly to bring peace to his country, but he would not act the part of a coward, and resign in the face of personal danger.

Many conferences were held in the American Embassy between members of the diplomatic corps and also between United States Ambassador Henry Lane Wilson and representatives of the Madero government, as well as of the rebels.

Ambassador Wilson was a dominating influence in the legation quarter and did much to assure the safety not only of the Americans but of all foreigners resident in the city. After the overthrow of Madero he was personally visited by Generals Huerta and Diaz and consulted upon important matters. He kept also in constant touch with Washington, where the authorities maintained a close watch over the situation.

INTERVENTION PROPOSED

The intervention of the United States was urged in many quarters, but President Taft and his advisers adhered to the policy they had followed from the outbreak of the revolution in Mexico in 1910. Their position was explained by President Taft in a message sent in reply to a communication from President Madero protesting against possible intervention. The message, dated February 16, asserted that the military and naval measures taken by the United States were merely precautionary, and concluded as follows:

"I feel it my duty to add sincerely and without reserve that the course of events during the last two years, culminating in the present most dangerous situation, creates in this country extreme pessimism and the conviction that the present paramount duty is the prompt relief of the situation."

While they refused to intervene in Mexico, President Taft and his cabinet made preparations to take that step should it become necessary. The battleships Georgia, Vermont and Nebraska were sent to Vera Cruz, the battleship Virginia to Tampico, the cruiser Colorado to Mazatlan, and the cruiser South Dakota to Acapulco. These ships were authorized to receive and protect Americans whose lives were endangered and also to land armed forces if necessary. Three thousand marines were ordered to Guantanamo, Cuba, to be held in readiness for immediate service, and the developments of the singular situation were eagerly awaited by the American people.

FALL OF MADERO

On February 18, General Victoriano Huerta and General Aureliano Blanquet, who up to that time had apparently given President Madero loyal support, suddenly turned against him. In the morning they fought the rebels with apparent vigor; in the afternoon they arrested

Madero, forced him to resign the presidency and deprived him of his liberty. The president became a prisoner.

General Huerta then assumed the powers of the presidency. The origin and development of the plot against President Madero were not made known. It was said that a group of senators had urged General Huerta to put an end to the fighting in the heart of the city and to remove the Madero family from control of public affairs. Another report was that General Blanquet, whose son was an adherent of General Diaz, was in reality opposed to Madero from the first and had only awaited a favorable opportunity to compass his downfall.

The actual arrest of Madero was accomplished under the direction of General Blanquet. He ordered into the city 1,000 men from his own command and stationed them near the National Palace, replacing the reserve troops who had been loyally fighting for Madero. The movement of these bodies of troops attracted much attention and a considerable crowd gathered about the palace in the afternoon. Generals Blanquet and Huerta soon appeared and announced in brief speeches that the time had come when peace must be restored in the city and that they intended to secure it. General Blanquet then detailed twenty men under Colonel Riveroll to arrest President Madero.

THE PRESIDENT ARRESTED

The first intimation the president had of the new turn of affairs was when he entered the great "Hall of Ambassadors," which was guarded by soldiers standing with rifles at the "ready." Madero was enraged and engaged in a scuffle with one of the guards. The soldier's rifle was discharged and a number of Madero's own men came hurrying to protect him. A brief encounter followed, resulting in the death of two of the guards and the wounding of several others. At the same time Colonel Riveroll was fatally wounded, dying a short

time afterward. It was officially charged that Madero himself fired the shot that killed Riveroll. When the president had been placed under arrest, his resignation was demanded and he complied with the command, writing a resignation in formal terms.

In the meantime other arrests were being made, including those of Vice-President Jose Pino Suarez, Governor Federico Gonzales Garza of the Federal District, and Gustave Madero, brother of the president. The latter was arrested in a restaurant, while in the company of General Huerta. Members of the Madero cabinet and other government officials were also placed under arrest, but these officials were soon released on parole.

CONGRESS SUMMONED TO ACT

Immediately after the arrests, at the instance of General Huerta, the executive officers of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies summoned a special session of Congress to legalize the change of government and name a provisional president. It is said General Diaz knew nothing of these proceedings until they were completed.

The first official act of General Huerta as *de facto* ruler was to send word to Ambassador Wilson, asking him to notify the other members of the diplomatic corps and to advise President Taft that the fighting was ended and that the foreigners in the city were safe.

Huerta also asked permission to use the American embassy as a channel for communication with the insurgents. Ambassador Wilson agreed to act as an intermediary, and an exchange of notes was begun which terminated in a complete agreement. The messenger of the United States Embassy received an ovation in the streets. As his automobile, bearing a white flag on one side and the American colors on the other, made its way through San Francisco street, the crowd, which had learned the nature of his errand, shouted, "Viva Los Americanos!"

In the evening a large crowd assembled in the Zocalo and cheered for Diaz, Huerta and Blanquet. Banners bearing the words " Peace " and " Liberty " were displayed. At the same time there was some rioting. The office of the " Nuova Era," a Madero organ, was set on fire and burned by a mob, and Marco Hernandez, a brother of the minister of the interior, was shot and killed for shouting, " Viva Madero! "

DEATH OF GUSTAVE MADERO

Early on the next day, February 19, General Felix Diaz went to the American Embassy and formally ratified an agreement with General Huerta, bringing the crisis to an end. The execution of Gustave Madero, who, after his arrest, had been confined in the Arsenal, also occurred on this day. He was subjected to the so-called " fugitive law," by which he was free to run under the rifle fire of his guards. He fell dead before he had proceeded many paces. Gustave Madero had been " the power behind the throne " and was generally disliked. It was said that his personality and actions were largely responsible for the downfall of the administration.

HUERTA NAMED AS PRESIDENT

At a special session of Congress in the evening, General Huerta was named as provisional president of Mexico. The first act of the Congress was to accept the resignation of President Madero; then Pedro Lascurian, as minister of foreign affairs, took the oath as president *ad interim,* and General Huerta, to make the succession legal, was appointed a cabinet minister. After these formalities had been complied with, he was duly elected, so that Mexico had three presidents within the space of about an hour.

MADERO MEETS HIS FATE

The new government proposed to send Madero into exile, but other counsels prevailed and he was kept as a

prisoner of war in the National Palace until the night of February 22-23, when he and the former vice-president, Jose Pino Suarez, were ordered to be conveyed to the penitentiary at the eastern end of the city. They were placed in an automobile, which was followed by another car and escorted by 100 rurales under Commandant Francisco Cardenas and Colonel Rafael Pimiento.

An official account of what followed was given to the press by President Huerta. According to this account, the automobiles had traversed about two-thirds of the way to the penitentiary when they were attacked by an armed group and the escort descended from the machines to offer resistance. "Suddenly the group grew larger and the prisoners tried to escape," said the official story. An exchange of shots then took place, in which two of the attacking party were killed and two were wounded.

Both prisoners were killed and the automobile in which they were riding was badly damaged. Madero, it was found, had been shot through the head, the bullet entering at the back and passing out of the forehead. The body of Suarez showed many wounds, the bullets having entered from the front.

Despite the official versions of the affair, considerable mystery surrounded it and it was generally supposed to be a case of another application of the "*ley fuga*" (fugitive law), to which Gustave Madero had already fallen a victim.

Immediately after the deaths of Madero and Suarez, the members of the escort were placed under arrest and the government promised to have the whole matter made the subject of a rigid judicial inquiry. The investigation resulted in a decision that no one could be held legally responsible.

The members of the diplomatic corps thereupon decided not to recognize the provisional government. In a statement issued February 24, Ambassador Wilson said that

in the absence of other reliable information he was disposed to accept the government version of the manner in which the ex-president and ex-vice-president lost their lives. "Certainly the violent deaths of these persons were without government approval," he said, "and if the deaths were the result of a plot, it was of restricted character and unknown to the higher officers of the government."

On the day before the killing of Madero and Suarez, the authorities at Washington ordered the 5th Brigade of the Second Army Division to proceed to Galveston, Tex., for possible service in Mexico. When the news of the tragedy in the Mexican capital became known, additional troops were ordered south from various army posts and within a few days some 10,000 men, under the command of Major General William H. Carter, had assembled at Galveston and other points near the Mexican border. President Taft disclaimed any intention of intervening in Mexico, but deemed it prudent to prepare for emergencies.

THE CARRANZA REVOLT

The election of General Huerta as provisional president failed to pacify the followers of Madero, many of whom assumed that he had been deliberately murdered. Furthermore, they saw in the election of Huerta a revival of the Diaz régime which they had overthrown in 1912. A leader arose in the person of Venustiano Carranza, governor of the state of Coahuila, and a friend of the dead president, who organized the Mexican Constitutionalist party and began an active military campaign in the northern half of the Republic.

On March 26, some of the leading members of the new organization met at Guadalupe, Coahuila, and adopted a declaration, of which the following is a summary:

"1. We repudiate General Victoriano Huerta as president of the Republic.

"2. We repudiate also the legislative and judicial powers of the Federation.

"3. We repudiate the governments of the states which thirty days hence shall recognize the Federal authorities which form the present administration.

"4. For the organization of the military forces necessary to enforce compliance with our purposes, we name as first chief of the party, which shall be called the Constitutionalist party, Don Venustiano Carranza, governor of Coahuila."

THE CONSTITUTIONALIST PROGRAM

The principal reforms sought by the Constitutionalists were described as follows:

"The weeding out of the administration personnel and the reconstruction of the judiciary; honesty in the management of the treasury; equitable distribution of taxes; legislation of better labor conditions, so as to develop better relations between capital and the working classes, especially in respect to the peasantry and the great landholders; establishment of agricultural banks; legislation providing for extensive irrigation throughout the land; passing of necessary laws to make titles to real estate respected and easy of transfer; revision of civil laws; fair distribution of communal land; the breaking up of large estates by means of proper expropriation; the betterment of the farming population; the construction of roads and turnpikes, and the imparting of public instruction on a large scale."

CIVIL WAR PREVAILS

The Constitutionalist movement, however, did not attract all of the Madero men. General Pascual Orozco, Sr., one of the noted leaders in the north, joined the Huerta forces, as did some of the Zapatistas in the south. Zapata himself refused to come to terms and preferred to continue his guerilla warfare. The Federals and Con-

stitutionalists were about equal in numbers. Fighting continued throughout the year, but neither side could claim any decided advantage. In the central part of the Republic and the City of Mexico the Huerta forces were in control, but in the north they maintained possession of only a few places, including Laredo, Monterey, Saltillo, Juarez, Jiminez and Parral.

Soon the contest took on all the aspects of civil war, with the addition of bandit operations. Life and property were threatened everywhere. Railroad communication was paralyzed throughout the country, except between the City of Mexico and Vera Cruz, and industry of all kinds was interrupted. Cases of robbery and violence, in which Americans and other foreigners were frequently the victims, occurred in nearly all parts of the country, and thousands were compelled to flee to the United States for protection.

PRESIDENT WILSON AND HUERTA

President Huerta was short of funds and in May it was reported that he was seeking a foreign loan of $75,000,000 to carry on the government and that English and French bankers had promised to furnish the money, provided he could secure recognition from the United States government. But President Wilson, who had succeeded President Taft March 4, 1913, held that Huerta had no constitutional or moral right to the presidency and refused to recognize him or his administration until after a presidential election, which had been announced for the latter part of October.

On learning the attitude of the United States, General Huerta informed Ambassador Wilson that the American claims for damages which had been filed would not be taken up until after recognition had been accorded. Relations between the two countries soon became strained and grew more and more unsatisfactory as time elapsed. Many clashes between Mexican and American troops

occurred on the border and the situation was not improved by the fact that some European nations were disposed to criticize the attitude of the Washington authorities toward Huerta.

In July, Ambassador Wilson was called to Washington for a conference. He arrived in Washington July 26, and it soon became apparent that the views of President Wilson and the ambassador were not in accord. The latter, it was said, advised a partial recognition of Huerta, but his suggestion was not favorably received. As a natural consequence of this divergence of opinion, Ambassador Wilson presented his resignation August 4, to take effect October 14.

"The part which Mr. Wilson felt it his duty to take in the earlier stages of the recent revolution in Mexico," said Secretary of State Bryan, "would make it difficult for him to represent now the views of the present administration."

The Mexican Embassy was thus left in charge of the secretary, Nelson O'Shaughnessy, as chargé d'affaires.

JOHN LIND'S MISSION

On the same day that Ambassador Wilson's resignation was accepted, the president directed Honorable John Lind, former governor of Minnesota and a leading and highly respected lawyer, to proceed to Mexico City as his personal representative, for the purpose of acting as adviser to the American Embassy. Mr. Lind arrived at the Mexican capital August 10. President Huerta had already announced that he would permit no foreign interference in Mexican affairs, but Mr. Lind or any other foreigner might pass through the country without fear of molestation. The following statement was issued August 6 by Manuel Garza Adalpe, acting minister of foreign affairs:

"By order of the president of the Republic, I declare,

as minister of foreign affairs *ad interim,* that if Mr. Lind does not bring credentials in due form, together with recognition of the government of Mexico, his presence in this country will not be desirable."

Washington officials declared that this statement was based on misinformation as to Mr. Lind's mission in Mexico and Mr. Lind was allowed to proceed. After his arrival in the capital he was informally received by the Mexican minister of foreign affairs, Senor Gamboa, and a series of conferences was held, but no agreement could be reached on the proposals of the Washington government, which included (1) the immediate cessation of fighting in Mexico; (2) the calling of an early and free election for president, all parties agreeing to take part in it; (3) the consent of General Huerta to bind himself not to be a candidate for election as president of the Republic at this election; (4) agreement of all parties to abide loyally by the result of the election.

Senor Gamboa maintained that the United States could best secure neutrality by refusing to aid the rebels, and that the suggestion that General Huerta pledge himself not to be a candidate was strange and unwarranted. He declared that the United States government should recognize the Huerta administration because it was constitutional.

In reply to this Mr. Lind proposed that only two of the conditions be complied with, namely, the holding of a constitutional election and the giving of an assurance by General Huerta that he would not be a candidate for president at that election. Mr. Lind also said:

"The president of the United States further authorizes me to say that if the *de facto* government of Mexico at once acts favorably upon the foregoing suggestions, then in that event the president will express to American bankers and their associates assurances that the government of the United States will look with favor upon the

extension of an immediate loan sufficient in amount to meet the temporary requirements of the *de facto* government of Mexico."

FAILURE OF NEGOTIATIONS

But Secretary Gamboa then declared that it was not necessary for General Huerta to pledge himself not to be a candidate, because under the constitution an *ad interim* president could not be a candidate at the ensuing election. The offer of a possible loan was repudiated as in effect a bribe.

Negotiations having thus reached a deadlock, and neither party being willing to give way, Mr. Lind deemed that a further stay in the City of Mexico would be inadvisable. He left on August 26 for Vera Cruz, expecting to proceed forthwith to the United States. Developments both in Washington and the City of Mexico, however, caused him to postpone his departure. President Wilson held a conference August 25 with the members of the foreign relations committees of the two houses of Congress and announced the policy which he had adopted. This he proposed to make public in a message to Congress on the following day.

On August 26, a despatch was received from President Huerta requesting that the message be delayed for another twenty-four hours and this was agreed to.

Nothing further was heard from Huerta and on August 27 the Senate and House met in joint session and President Wilson read his message in person. After referring to the deplorable condition of affairs in Mexico, he said that the peace, prosperity, and contentment of Mexico meant more than merely an enlarged field for commerce and enterprise. "We shall yet prove to the Mexican people," he said, "that we know how to serve them without first thinking how we shall serve ourselves."

President Wilson pointed out that things had grown worse instead of better and that those who claimed to

constitute the legitimate government of the Republic had failed to make good their claim in fact. War and disorder, devastation and confusion, seemed to threaten to become the settled fortune of the country. Referring to Mr. Lind's mission to Mexico, the president detailed the instructions given to his envoy. These were that he "should impress upon those exercising authority in the City of Mexico the fact that the government of the United States did not feel at liberty any longer to stand inactively by, while it became daily more evident that no real progress was being made toward the establishment of a government which the country would obey and respect; that the situation in Mexico was incompatible with the fulfillment of the international obligations on the part of that country, and that all America cried out for a settlement." Mr. Lind had been further instructed that such a settlement seemed to be conditioned on the following points:

"An immediate cessation of fighting throughout Mexico — a definite armistice solemnly entered into and scrupulously observed.

"Security given for an early and free election in which all would agree to take part.

"The consent of General Huerta to bind himself not to be a candidate for election as president of the Republic at this election.

"The agreement of all parties to abide by the results of the election and to co-operate in the most loyal way in organizing and supporting the new administration."

President Wilson declared that Mr. Lind had executed his delicate mission with singular tact, firmness and good judgment, but the proposals he submitted had been rejected in a note from the Mexican minister of foreign affairs. Meanwhile it was the duty of the United States to remain patient, to exercise self-restraint, and to wait for a further opportunity to offer friendly counsels.

"We should earnestly urge all Americans to leave

Mexico at once," the president continued, " and should assist them to get away in every way possible — not because we would mean to slacken in the least our efforts to safeguard their lives and their interests, but because it is imperative that they should take no unnecessary risks when it is physically possible for them to leave the country."

In conclusion the president said: " The steady pressure of moral force will, before many days, break the barriers of pride and prejudice down, and we shall triumph as Mexico's friends sooner than we could triumph as her enemies — and how much more handsomely, with how much higher and finer satisfaction of conscience and of honor."

In accordance with the announcement made in President Wilson's message, the Americans in Mexico were warned to leave that country and were advised that to enable them to do so money and warships would be placed at their disposal. Steps were also taken to prohibit the shipment of arms to Mexico.

HUERTA AGREES TO AN ELECTION

When the Mexican Congress met on September 16, General Huerta promised to spare no efforts to bring about the unrestricted election of a president and vice-president of the Republic in October. He deprecated the attitude of the American government, but declared that there was no unfriendliness between the American and the Mexican people. He also announced that French bankers had taken $30,000,000 of the $100,000,000 loan authorized at the preceding session of Congress. The sum of $24,900,000, he said, had been used in " pacifying " the country.

As the date set for the election approached, the Catholic party in Mexico nominated Federico Gamboa for president and General Eugenio Rascon for vice-president of the Republic. Manuel Calero and Flores Magnon were

nominated by the Liberals. Other candidates for the presidency were also announced, among them being General Felix Diaz.

HUERTA AS DICTATOR

On October 10, by order of President Huerta, 110 members of the Chamber of Deputies were arrested for signing resolutions of warning to him because of the sudden "disappearance" of Senator Belisario Dominguez, of Chiapas, who had criticized the president. Both branches of the Congress were declared suspended and new elections of senators and deputies were ordered for October 14. President Huerta also suspended all constitutional guaranties and declared himself dictator of the Republic.

AN UNSATISFACTORY ELECTION

The presidential and congressional elections took place October 26. The vote cast was extremely small and the result was unsatisfactory. Huerta, who was ineligible and not a candidate, was declared to have received a majority for president. General Blanquet led for vice-president. Huerta had already been notified by President Wilson that under the conditions created by the arrest of the deputies and the suspension of constitutional guaranties, a fair election could not be held, and that the United States government would refuse to recognize the men chosen.

On November 2, acting under instructions from the State Department at Washington, Nelson O'Shaughnessy, chargé d'affaires, notified General Huerta that he must resign the presidency of Mexico and that he must not leave as his successor General Aureliano Blanquet, his minister of war, or any other member of his official family. A week later, General Huerta announced that the newly-elected Congress would be installed in a few days and would pass upon the elections of president and vice-president. If this Congress declared the election of Octo-

ber 26 void, new elections would be called. In the meantime he said he would continue in office and direct his effort towards the pacification of the country.

President Wilson, through his personal representative, John Lind, notified General Huerta early on November 12 that unless he returned an answer that day to a demand that he must prevent the newly-elected Congress from being called into session and must make this action known to the diplomatic corps, the United States would have no further parleying with the Mexican government.

Huerta made no reply, and Mr. Lind, who had been in the capital for some days, returned to Vera Cruz, saying that he would not set foot in the City of Mexico again until the new Congress had been dissolved. This was not done, but on the contrary, the Congress met and ratified the results of the election of October 26. Mr. Lind remained at Vera Cruz throughout the winter, watching events at the capital and in constant communication with President Wilson. His return to the United States was soon followed by the Tampico incident and the ultimatum to Huerta, the rejection of which led to the occupation of Vera Cruz, April 21, 1914.

Typical scene in the City of Mexico during the ten days' fighting in the streets, preceding Madero's death

Iron telegraph pole smashed by shot from the arsenal

Youth and Old Age.
This aged peon woman is said to be over 112 years old

General Blanquet, the man who arrested President Madero

Statue destroyed by gunfire near the National Palace

Windows on third floor shattered by shell from Arsenal

Street crowd near National Palace viewing a ruined statue

In the line of fire during the ten days' fight

CHAPTER V

THE MEXICAN WAR OF 1846-7

Mexicans and Americans have faced each other in war in the past, the hostilities of April, 1914, at Vera Cruz being by no means the first between armed forces of the United States and the Spanish-Indian citizens of the southern Republic.

Historians do not dignify the numerous engagements between the independent Texans and the Mexicans with the use of the word war. But the war of 1846-7, though insignificant in comparison with the civil war in the United States, nevertheless was of great consequence and far-reaching results.

The war cost the United States $163,000,000 and the lives of about 25,000 brave soldiers, one-fourth the actual number of American fighters who participated in the struggle. It left the United States with a debt of $85,000,000. But the cost to Mexico was so enormous that no attempt ever was made accurately to measure it in human lives and dollars. Thousands and thousands of Mexicans were slain by the more highly trained soldiers of the United States, though the Mexicans fought bravely, gallantly and furiously on many memorable occasions.

The war of 1846 was the result of a boundary dispute. Texas had belonged to Mexico, but the vast territory was peopled by Americans and but few Mexicans lived in Texas. Many Americans, among them the pioneer, Stephen Austin, for whom Austin County and the city of Austin, Tex., were named, had obtained land grants in Texas from the Mexican government. Colonists moved

in and the territory was dotted with thriving little communities.

THE REVOLT OF TEXAS

The elemental differences between the Mexicans and Americans and the prejudices of religion and nationality could only lead to one result — disputes. When after years of virtual self-rule the Mexican government began to rule Texas harshly, the Texans rebelled in 1833, and in 1836 set up an independent government. The republic of Texas, which became the Lone Star State, was born.

When Santa Anna, the powerful Mexican chief, overthrew the government in one of the numerous revolutions from which Mexico was seldom free, Texas prepared to seek admittance to the Mexican confederation as a new state. Stephen Austin was the commissioner who went to the City of Mexico bearing the petition.

It was ignored and Austin imprudently wrote back to the Texan leaders to go ahead and organize a state without waiting for the government's consent. His letter fell into the hands of Santa Anna and Austin was arrested and thrown into prison and placed in solitary confinement for a year. The indignity inflamed the Texans, but when Santa Anna sent General Cos into Texas to enforce an act passed in 1830 prohibiting immigration of Americans into Texas, and to demand the surrender of Lorenzo de Zavala, a refugee wanted because he had introduced a bill in the Mexican Congress directed against church property, the Texans prepared for resistance. The Mexican general took possession of the town of Antonio de Bexar.

The Texans, on September 28, 1835, attacked and defeated a small body of Mexicans at Gonzales, on the Rio Guadalupe, and the war and revolution of Texas was begun. The Mexicans met victory in most of the earlier engagements, but the Texans, aided by the United States in every possible way, finally defeated Santa Anna, who

was himself captured and his army destroyed. Texas was free.

TEXAS BOUNDARIES DEFINED

The revolution closed with the battle of San Jacinto April 21, 1836, when General Samuel Houston was victorious and captured Santa Anna. Texan delegates had previously met at Washington, on the Brazos, March 2, and declared the independence of Texas, drew up a constitution and formed a government. Santa Anna was a captive and readily acknowledged the independence of Texas.

The boundaries of Texas were then defined as "beginning at the mouth of the Rio Grande, thence up the principal stream of said river to its source; thence due north to 42° of north latitude; thence along the boundary line, as defined in the treaty between the United States and Spain (February, 1819), to the beginning."

Santa Anna's acknowledgment of Texas' independence and the treaty of peace which set the Rio Grande del Norte as the western boundary of Texas, were repudiated a little later, after President Bustamente took charge of the reins of Mexican government and recommenced the war with Texas, which was carried on in a desultory fashion until Texas was finally annexed by the United States in 1845.

In 1844 President John Tyler negotiated a treaty of annexation secretly, but it was rejected by the Senate. That occurred in April of that year and the question of annexing Texas was thereby made a political one, by reason of the national nominating conventions meeting in May. James K. Polk was nominated by the Democrats on a platform of "reannexation of Texas" and was elected the eleventh president of the United States.

The result of the election was interpreted by President Tyler as expressing the will of the voters and he urged Congress to acquire Texas. Congress gave the president

authority to negotiate with Texas and he chose to submit it in the form of a joint resolution to Texas. Texas accepted the terms. That territory then was slave soil and it was arranged that four states to be free soil should be formed in that part of Texas north of 36 30′ north latitude.

BOUNDARY IS DISPUTED

Texas claimed the Rio Grande River as her western boundary and Mexico claimed that the Nueces River was the line. The territory between those two rivers was disputed. Texas asked that the United States send an army to its defense and occupy the disputed strip.

Accordingly General Zachary Taylor, then in command at Camp Jessup, was ordered to move his forces into Texas. He moved to Corpus Christi on the Arranza Bay in the early part of August, 1845. In November of that year his forces aggregated 4,049 men, comprising a general staff of 24 officers, two regiments of dragoons, four of artillery and five of infantry.

Mexico, hearing the reports of the annexation of Texas by the United States, announced that annexation would mean war.

When General Taylor was ordered into Texas, Captain Stockton was ordered to proceed with a squadron to the Gulf of Mexico. General Winfield Scott was the commander-in-chief of the army.

Mexico, however, desired no war, and although the diplomatic relations of the two countries had been broken off, Manuel de la Pena y Pena, Mexican minister of foreign affairs, acceded to a request to receive an envoy entrusted with full powers to adjust all differences between Mexico and the United States. John Slidell was sent to Mexico City. His mission failed.

GENERAL TAYLOR MOVES HIS ARMY

On January 13, 1846, an order was issued to move General Taylor's army from Corpus Christi to the Rio

Grande and occupy the western border of the disputed territory. The army established its position at Point Isabel on March 25 and three days later had arranged itself within cannon range of Metamoras. Official reports show that more than one-half of the United States army was in the corps of General Taylor.

General Arista assumed chief command of the Mexican army on April 25, 1846, and the same day a detachment of sixty-three dragoons was sent to watch the course of the river above Metamoras. Thirty miles from the camp they were surprised by the Mexicans, sixteen of them were killed and wounded, and Captain Thornton, in charge of the detachment, was compelled to surrender. General Arista treated his prisoners with great respect and kindness.

Three days after the Thornton affair Captain Walker's Texas Rangers were attacked and several killed at a point between Point Isabel and Metamoras. General Taylor left a body of troops in charge of some unfinished field work and hurried with his main force back to Point Isabel, believing that that place would be attacked and the Mexicans would seek to cut him off in the rear. Major Jacob Brown was in charge of the work.

The Mexicans thereupon decided it safe to attack Fort Brown. The batteries in Metamoras began a bombardment on May 3 and the siege was not raised until May 9, when General Taylor returned after winning victories over Mexican troops at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.

General Taylor, in his report, stated that he believed General Arista had about 6,000 men and that the American army lost four men killed and thirty-seven wounded at Palo Alto and occupied the field, the Mexicans retreating with a loss of about 100 killed. General Taylor's force in that battle did not exceed 2,300 men. On the next day — May 9 — he met and again defeated the Mexican force at Resaca de la Palma and they fled across the Rio Grande, many of them being overwhelmed in its

waters. General Taylor reported to the war department the loss of forty-three killed and about 100 wounded, and 300 Mexicans killed and a much greater number wounded. General La Vega was among those captured and refused a parole. He was sent to New Orleans.

CONGRESS DECLARES WAR

As a result of these engagements, President Polk asked Congress on May 12 to declare war, and the next day Congress declared that war existed between Mexico and the United States, and voted $10,000,000, and a call for 50,000 volunteers was made. General Scott was called into consultation with the president and was informed he was to be assigned to command the army in Mexico at once. He then began plans for conquering Mexico. He said he wanted a special army of 30,000 effective men, but his force never reached that number. Actually, the regulars were less than 7,000 strong, and the twenty-four regiments of volunteers made about 18,000 men.

Preparations for an advance into the interior of Mexico required several months, and differences of opinion among officials and between certain of them and General Scott caused further delay, so that the commander did not leave Washington until November, 1846. He reached the mouth of the Rio Grande in January, 1847, and called on General Taylor to send him 10,000 men.

Although his force had been increased, General Taylor could ill afford to send General Scott any large number of men. He had occupied Metamoras after the battle of Resaca de la Palma and planned to push ahead against Monterey.

BATTLE OF MONTEREY

The march on Monterey began on August 20, 1846. The battle at that point did not commence, however, until the night of September 20. General Taylor moved his forces slowly, and although he had believed that General

Pedro Ampudia, commanding the Mexicans in Monterey, had no more than 2,000 or 3,000, it later was discovered that the force was twice as strong.

Monterey is situated in the valley of the San Juan River, which flows behind the city. The ridges of the Sierra Madre Mountains also rise behind the city. The army approached by the road from Marin. At the left of the road before Monterey the river bends along the highway. On the right the road to Saltillo leads up through the valley. On a prominence above the Saltillo road was the Bishop's Palace and on other heights were fortifications occupied by the Mexicans. In front of the city was the citadel, with a strong garrison.

On the night of September 20, General Taylor sent a division to turn the position at the Bishop's Palace, which was accomplished, the division remaining outside range of the Mexicans' guns. Howitzers and mortars were placed in position against the citadel and on the morning of the 21st the battle began.

The lower part of the city was first attacked and the Americans found the enemy entrenched in the streets. They had little success that day. On the following day the heights above the Bishop's Palace were stormed and the next found the Mexicans concentrated in the heart of the city, fighting from the citadel and the Plaza. The Americans literally had to fight their way from house to house and so strong were the barricades that they dug through one house and barricaded street into the next. The citadel remained untaken and to have reduced it would have meant great loss of life.

General Ampudio finally asked for terms of surrender, and on the night of August 23, General Taylor arranged an eight weeks' armistice with the Mexican commander. By those terms the Mexicans were allowed to evacuate the city with their arms. General Taylor, however, had received no wagon trains, and provisions were running low.

The American loss at Monterey was 400 killed and wounded.

The news of the armistice was not favorably received in Washington and its cessation was ordered on October 13. General Taylor so announced to General Santa Anna, then commander-in-chief of the Mexican army, but when he suggested that an honorable peace might be arranged the Mexican general is said to have declared that there could be no peace so long as a North American remained on Mexican soil.

The troops did not move again until November 12, when a march on Saltillo was made, and that point, Parras, and finally Victoria, were occupied without real opposition. The American forces occupied Victoria on December 29, and Tampico being taken by Commodore Perry, the campaign of the Rio Grande, in which General Taylor and his men had signally honored themselves and their country many times, was substantially brought to a close.

BATTLE OF BUENA VISTA

The battle of Buena Vista, which was to decide whether or not the Americans would remain in command of the valley of the Rio Grande, was yet to be fought, however.

General Taylor returned to Monterey from Victoria in January, 1847. He had left about 6,000 men, after sending three of his strongest divisions of regulars to Tampico to join General Scott's expedition against Vera Cruz, the most important port on the Gulf of Mexico.

Santa Anna, with a magnificent force of more than 20,000 men, the best fighting men of Mexico, though many of them were, of course, volunteers and recruits, was at San Luis Potosí. He planned to go against General Taylor, then to hurry to the coast to attack General Scott and frustrate the assault on Vera Cruz.

General Taylor learned of his approach and moved his force to Buena Vista, establishing his men in a strong mountain position. With his volunteers, he there calmly

prepared to await the coming of the Mexican troops, trusting to the strength of his position, the enthusiasm of his men and Providence to win a victory.

When the contending forces met, the general again distinguished himself; his sharpshooting volunteers never wavered and the Mexican loss was enormous. This battle was the crowning victory of the Rio Grande campaign. The American loss was 267 killed, 456 wounded and twenty-three missing.

Santa Anna had been compelled to move his men across a desert country, but after the defeat he nevertheless set out resolutely to meet Scott.

GENERAL SCOTT'S CAMPAIGN

General Scott planned to take 12,000 men in the expedition against Vera Cruz. He sailed from New York November 30, 1846, and went to New Orleans, thence to the mouth of the Rio Grande. He was joined by the troops sent on by General Taylor. New volunteers and a few regulars gathered from forts throughout the country had made a rendezvous of the Island of Lobos, 125 miles northwest of Vera Cruz. The troops from the Upper Rio Grande were taken on board transports and taken to Lobos.

On the morning of March 7, 1847, General Scott, on board the Massachusetts with Commodore Connor, reconnoitered and at sunset the troops which had been transported in the warships were landed opposite the Island of Sacrificios. They expected to be met by the Mexicans, but the latter did not appear.

In full view was the city and the old castle of San Juan d'Uloa. The guns of the castle and city opened fire. but no Mexican troops appeared. In the days that followed numerous skirmishes occurred, but preparations for the siege continued, and in accord with General Scott's orders, prepared in advance, the line of siege was made five miles long. Heavy guns were landed from the ships

of war on the night of March 17 and on the 18th trenches were opened and the army gradually moved in upon the invested city.

Surrender was demanded on March 22, but the governor of the castle refused. The heavy batteries immediately began their deadly fire. More guns reinforced the besiegers in succeeding days and the siege was furious day and night. Consuls of European governments sought a truce, but General Scott replied that they had had the opportunity to leave, with all women and children, and they had not availed themselves of that opportunity; and that the exigencies of war demanded continuation of the siege.

SURRENDER OF VERA CRUZ

The American shells made Vera Cruz a fiery furnace, and on March 26 the Mexicans made overtures of surrender. Articles of capitulation were signed on the night of the 27th.

On the morning of March 29, the American flag floated over the ancient castle and forts about the city. The city was taken with the loss of two officers and a few privates. The Americans had protected themselves well in their entrenchments and the fire of the heavy guns from the ships of war was effective. The Mexican fire from the castle and forts, on the other hand, had little effect. Commodore Connor was given much credit for the assistance of the sailors and the heavy guns.

By the terms of the capitulation General Scott obtained the surrender of 5,000 prisoners on parole, and all arms and munitions of war. The capture of the city left the way open toward the City of Mexico.

It was just 328 years since Hernando Cortez had landed at Vera Cruz and begun his conquering march which subdued the ancient Aztecs and obtained for Spain the land of the Montezumas; Spain having ruled Mexico until the country won independence in 1821.

ON TO MEXICO CITY

General Scott found the way to Mexico City hard. His ranks became thinner and thinner. Many perished by disease. He never once planned to go back. For him the march to the capital would only be ended with complete victory. He left Vera Cruz April 8, after making General W. J. Worth governor of the city and castle. General Worth had successfully stormed the heights above the Bishop's Palace at Monterey and proved one of the most distinguished aids to both General Taylor and Commander-in-Chief Scott.

The army proceeded along the Jalapa road. Wagons arrived from the United States slowly, and there were great quantities of ammunition, arms and provisions to be moved. When they arrived the march began. In three days the foot of the mountains had been reached.

BATTLE OF CERRO GORDO

Meanwhile General Santa Anna, with 15,000 men, had crossed the interior provinces and was ready to defend the heights of Cerro Gordo. General Twiggs, who also won fame for his participation in the Rio Grande campaign with General Taylor, was in advance with his division. He planned to attack the enemy in their almost impregnable position behind the fortifications of Cerro Gordo on April 13, but was persuaded to delay the attack until General Scott arrived from the rear.

The commander-in-chief deemed a frontal attack sure to end in defeat. He ordered a road built around the base of the mountains that the army might reach the rear of the Mexican forces on the heights. His men accomplished the herculean task. The Mexicans did not discover the work in progress until three days had passed. Then they began firing, on April 17. That night General Scott ordered as follows:

"The enemy's whole line of entrenchments and batteries will be attacked in front, and at the same time turned, early in the day tomorrow."

The order was executed, the heights were stormed, the enemy routed, and a vigorous pursuit followed until Jalapa was in view. When Cerro Gordo fell General La Vega and 3,000 prisoners were taken. General Scott scarcely knew what to do with them. Santa Anna and 8,000 men had escaped. They were pursued to Jalapa by General Worth's reserve division.

General Scott lost 250 killed and wounded, the Mexicans many more. He did not halt, but pushed on rapidly, taking Jalapa on April 19. On April 22 he took Perote. Moving slowly then, the army pushed on and on May 15 General Worth's men entered Puebla, encountering little opposition. Thus the campaign from Vera Cruz to Puebla in two months' time was a procession of unbroken victories.

Ten thousand prisoners had been taken, thousands of arms of all kinds seized, and General Scott became a greater popular idol than ever before in his great career.

IN THE VALLEY OF MEXICO

In Puebla he rested until August 7. Three days later he was within sight of the City of Mexico. Round about that city prosperity then appeared abundant. There were fields of waving grain, which indicated that husbandry had been resumed in Mexico in spite of revolution and war. Agricultural pursuits had suffered great depression, but when General Scott's army of slightly more than 4,000 effective men, many ill, some wounded, and all tired and worn by the campaign, arrived on the borders of the Valley of Mexico, there were many indications of labor and thrift. The native Mexican, however, was exactly as he had been 1,000 years before — and in this twentieth century many contend he is the same.

Six miles from Puebla had stood the ancient city of Cholula, believed to have been once a city of 200,000 inhabitants. There Hernando Cortez had seen the spires of 400 idol temples. Not even ruins remained in 1847.

Only a huge pyramid, truncated at the top, believed to have been dedicated to the gods of the Aztecs, remained as a monument of the once proud city.

After two months of delay, in which period illness, short rations and attacks of guerilla parties had harassed General Scott's forces, new regiments and supplies were forwarded, and in the early part of August, 1847, the commander-in-chief started for the City of Mexico surrounded by many strong positions and forts. His army had been augmented to slightly less than 11,000 men. The troops marched along the National road, ascended the Anahuac range of the Corderilla Mountains, and on the third day reached the pass of Rio Frio, 10,120 feet above sea level; and, a few miles farther on, reached the crest of the mountain and beheld the Valley of Mexico. On August 11, Ayotla, fifteen miles from the capital, was reached. Here a survey was made and General Scott determined that the fortifications directly in front of the city would prove extremely hard to take and that the effort would involve great loss of life.

General Santa Anna had strongly fortified all the positions around the city, but the National road, as the most common mode of ingress to the capital, was presumed to be the route which the invading army would follow. General Scott, however, determined to send his men miles out of their way around Lake Chalco to the Acalpuco road west of the lake. On that highway San Augustine was selected as a depot. Between that point were San Antonio, Conteras and Churubusco, where successive engagements took place.

SCOTT'S STRATEGY WINS

In sending the army around the south end of Lake Chalco, a route deemed impracticable by the Mexicans, it was necessary for the soldiers to cut another road for the artillery, even as they did about Cerro Gordo. It was done, and in three days General Scott's forces had

reached the neighborhood of San Augustine after a march of twenty-seven miles. The first fortified point ahead was San Antonia.

The commander-in-chief determined to pass around that point, take the strong fort of Contreras, west of San Antonia, passing around to the rear of the latter point and attack Churubusco. Batteries at San Antonia began firing on August 18, but no great damage was done, and by strategy three brigades were moved about Contreras on the night of the 19th, and taking position in a ravine the Americans were able to strike hard on the morning of August 20. The Mexicans were surprised, having been unaware of the force in the ravine, and fled in a rout with large losses. They lost 700 killed, about 1,000 wounded and more than 800 were taken prisoners. One writer says, "The actual conflict lasted but seventeen minutes! The pursuit for hours."

Churubusco, situated four miles east, with formidable entrenchments, was next to be taken by the entire army, though several brigades were sent back to San Antonia and that point taken with no great difficulty. With two important victories, the army then marched on to Churubusco, and in the third memorable engagement attacked the fortifications in two places simultaneously and carried them, though under deadly fire and with considerable loss.

It was here that several American deserters actually manned batteries for the enemy and fought desperately, killing many Americans. A number of the deserters were captured, twenty-nine were sentenced to be hanged and twenty of them were executed.

A TRUCE AGREED UPON

On the morning of August 21, following the memorable engagements of the preceding day, General Scott advanced toward the City of Mexico. He was met by representatives of General Santa Anna and an armistice

proposed. He marched on, however, to Tacubaya and slept that night in the Archbishop's Palace near the great castle of Chapultepec. The next day the general met the representatives of Santa Anna and agreed on a truce.

The impression had prevailed in the United States early in the year 1847 that Mexico wanted peace and Mr. N. P. Trist was sent from Washington as the envoy of President Polk to confer with representatives of the Mexican government. Negotiations failed, for Mexico was not ready to yield.

BATTLE OF CHAPULTEPEC

On September 7 of that year, after it was known the peace negotiations had been unsuccessful, General Scott prepared to resume hostilities. He determined to take the City of Mexico by assault. Less than a mile from his headquarters in the village of Tacubaya were the enemy's fortifications and the rocky hill of Chapultepec. Approach seemed only permitted from the forest covered slope on the west. At the base were the towered stone structure of El Molino del Rey and Casa de Mata, another strong stone building, with batteries between.

On the morning of September 8 the battle began and in bloody engagements the victorious army, greatly outnumbered but intrepid and unconquerable, drove the Mexicans from their fortified positions. Munitions were taken and destroyed and the enemy routed from those positions at the base of Chapultepec, but that apparently impregnable castle remained to be taken, for it commanded the City of Mexico and the roads to the capital.

After the double victory at the foot of Chapultepec the forces retired to Tacubaya and General Scott planned the final assault. Batteries were erected and began firing on the morning of September 12. The firing, intended to cripple the defenses, preliminary to storming the place, continued all day. On the morning of the 13th the col-

umns charged and carried the castle and placed the American flag on its ramparts.

IN THE CITY OF MEXICO

The way was then open to the capital and with more fighting that night at the Belem and San Cosmo gates the Americans entered the outer districts of the city, where the soldiers and citizens fought from behind breastworks and from the roofs of houses.

When morning came the *ayuntamiento* (city council) informed General Scott that the government and the army had evacuated, and at 7 o'clock that morning — September 14, 1847 — the American flag floated over the National Palace.

The capital was taken with less than 6,000 men, while the Mexicans had 30,000 in the neighborhood when the Americans rounded Lake Chalco. General Scott reported his losses in the fighting of August 19 and 20 and September 8, 12, 13 and 14, as 2,703 killed and wounded, including 383 officers.

SANTA ANNA IN EXILE

General Santa Anna escaped from the capital with some two or three thousand men and was next heard of when he attacked the city of Puebla, where a small garrison had been left, on September 25. Before he could accomplish anything even against that small garrison his men deserted him and he became an exile. He formally resigned the supreme power October 18. Pena y Pena, president of the Supreme Court of Justice, took charge and called a congress of the states at Queretaro to prepare to restore a federal government and to arrange a treaty of peace with the United States. This was done in November, 1847, and one of the first acts of the new government was to appoint a commission to meet Mr. N. P. Trist and negotiate terms of peace.

While General Taylor was conquering northeastern

Effects of shell fire during the "Ten Days' Fight"

U. S. battleship Florida cleared for rough weather

Custom House and Wharf, Tampico

In the harbor at Vera Cruz

Major General Leonard Wood, former chief of staff of the United States Army, named as commander-in-chief of forces in the field in case of war.

Mexican cavalry of Huerta's army in Mexico City

The rurales — a part of the Federal forces of Mexico

Mexico, General Stephen W. Kearney made a bloodless conquest of New Mexico. California was taken by Lieutenant John C. Fremont, the explorer known as "the Pathfinder," and thus New Mexico and California were claimed for the United States. Commodore Stockton, with a fleet on the Pacific coast, made California safe for the American settlers who had set up the "Bear State Republic" because of Mexican depredations.

THE TREATY OF PEACE

On February 2, 1848, a treaty of peace was signed by Mr. Trist and three Mexican commissioners. Although Mr. Trist's powers as a commissioner had been withdrawn by President Polk, he nevertheless assumed to act. The terms of the document by which several million dollars were to be paid Mexico in return for New Mexico and California caused much controversy in Washington and throughout the United States. The treaty, with several important amendments, was finally ratified, however, by the United States Senate, March 10. Several weeks later the Mexican Congress ratified it, but it was not until June 19, 1848, that it was announced to the people of the United States that the treaty was complete and the country at peace with Mexico.

TERMS OF THE TREATY

By the terms of the treaty the United States was to retain New Mexico and California — an addition of 522,568 square miles — but Mexico was to be paid $15,000,000 for this territory. In addition, claims of $3,500,000 of citizens of the United States against Mexico were to be paid by the American government.

Another treaty was made with Mexico in 1853, when the boundary line was changed so that by payment of $10,000,000 the United States acquired 45,535 square miles additional — generally called the "Gadsden Purchase," after James Gadsden, the man who negotiated the agreement.

CHAPTER VI

EARLY HISTORY OF MEXICO

The history of the earliest development of Mexico is shrouded in what has been well called "an impenetrable mist of fable." Scientific investigation and archeological researches have not yet lifted the veil sufficiently to disclose the original inhabitants of the country. Ruins and hieroglyphics in different portions of the Republic reveal the story of a series of immigrations from the north towards the south, but the point from which the peregrinations began has not been and never may be made known.

Mexican historians generally agree, however, founding their theories on the interpretations of hieroglyphics and upon the ancient ruins, that the country was invaded by seven families, successively immigrating from the north, all speaking the same language, the Nahuatl or Mexican; but history does not reveal the starting point of these races nor disclose the mystery of the multiplicity of languages of so diverse a character spoken by the many tribes that followed them, nor the causes that impelled them to abandon their former homes. According to the Mexican scholar, Pimental, not one of the one hundred and eight indigeneous tongues bears any analogy to Asiatic tongues, but certain resemblances to the language of the Esquimaux would indicate direct communication between Asia and America.

ARRIVAL OF THE TOLTECS

The annals of the Toltecs have furnished a starting point for the history of Mexico. These composed a semicivilized nation who inhabited a country called

Huehuetlappallan, towards the north of the continent, where they built cities and temples, and were versed in agriculture, the arts, and the computation of time. Owing to civil disturbances, the Toltecs, with a number of their partisans and neighbors, in the year 544 A. D., were expelled from their country and began their wanderings southward, founding cities on their way.

In 648 they arrived in Anahuac and one hundred and seventeen years after leaving their country they reached the present site of Tula (50 miles north of the City of Mexico, on the line of the Mexican Central Railroad), where they laid the foundation of their powerful kingdom. This tribe remained here until overthrown by the "lords of Jalisco," in 1116, eleven monarchs having reigned.

ORIGIN OF PULQUE

There is a notable event in the history of the Toltecs which deserves mention, as it is well authenticated. It is the origin of the universal and famous Mexican beverage "pulque" in the reign of the eighth Toltec chief, Tepaucaltzin, in the latter half of the eleventh century.

It is narrated that a noble named Papantzin discovered the method of extracting the juice of the maguey plant, of which it is made, and sent some of the fermented liquid to his chief by the hand of his daughter, the beautiful Xochitl, called the Flower of Tollan (Tula). The chief, enamored both of the drink and the maiden, retained the latter a willing prisoner, and she became the mother of his illegitimate son, who afterwards wielded the scepter. This incident inaugurated the troubles of the Toltecs. And pulque has been causing trouble ever since.

After the dispersion of the Toltecs, a roving tribe, the Chichimecas, hearing of the former's overthrow, occupied the abandoned country, starting for it from the north in 1117.

Other tribes of the original seven successively descended from the north and spread themselves over the valley of Mexico, founding cities and erecting temples and palaces.

THE AZTECS IN THE VALLEY

The last tribe to reach the valley was the Aztec, or Mexican, whose annals claim the greatest interest in the history of Mexico. This tribe is supposed to have originally come from the north of California, according to the historian, Clavijero, their country being called Aztlan. They reached Tula (50 miles north of the present City of Mexico) in 1196, remaining there nine years, and spending eleven in other parts of the valley. At the expiration of this time they arrived in Zumpango, 30 miles north of their future capital. Here they were received and the chief's son married a daughter of one of the Mexican families. From this marriage sprang the military chiefs of the Mexicans.

LEGEND OF THE EAGLE

After many wanderings they settled on the marshy islands near the western borders of Lake Texococo, and there, in the year 1325, was established the nucleus of the city first called Tenochitlan, derived according to some authorities from Tenoch, one of their priests and leaders. Other authorities claim that the name comes from Tenuch (prickly pear cactus), as there is an old legend that the leaders of the tribes of Mexicans wandering in search of a place to rest, saw an eagle standing upon a cactus strangling a serpent, on the site of the City of Mexico. This legend has been generally accepted and gave Mexico the design for its escutcheon.

The present name of the City of Mexico finds its source in the name of the Aztec's god of war, Mexitli, also known as Huitzilopochtli. The name of the country demonstrates the hold the maguey plant had upon the ancient

tribes. Mexican traditions, as preserved in the most ancient writings, relate that this god Huitzilopochtli was born of a virgin belonging to the noble family of Citli (free and ancestral); that his cradle was the heart of a maguey plant (metl), and hence the name of Mecitli, afterwards changed into Mexitli and finally into "Mexico."

THE FIRST AZTEC KING

Here the Aztecs constituted their first government, which was theocratic and military under Tenoch, who died in the year 1343. Three years subsequent to his death the form of government changed, and in 1376 the first king was elected. Ten kings followed, during the reign of whom the Aztecs devoted themselves to the arts of peace and built a fine city, connecting it with the mainland by four causeways. The last of the Aztec monarchs was Cauhtemoc, whose conquest by Hernando Cortez brought an end to the Mexican dynasty.

EMPIRE OF THE MONTEZUMAS

The Montezumas established their empire about the year 1460 and continued to govern till the arrival of the Spaniards in 1521, when Montezuma II. was killed by the arrows of his own warriors when Cortez forced him to go upon the portico of his palace to quell, if possible, the rioting Aztecs, who under Cauhtemoc were attempting his rescue. Cauhtemoc, the nephew of Montezuma, became his successor and was the last of the Aztec kings.

CONQUEST BY CORTEZ

Hernando Cortez, a famous Spanish officer, sailed from Santiago de Cuba for Mexico February 18, 1519. The fleet consisted of eleven ships, carrying 110 sailors, sixteen cavalry men with their horses, 553 foot soldiers, 200 Cuban Indians, a battery of ten small cannon and four falconets; with this army went two Indians as interpreters, captured by Corboda in Yucatan two years previous.

On his ship Cortez raised the standard of the conquest, a black ensign, emblazoned with the arms of Charles V. of Spain, bearing the crimson cross borne in clouds, with the motto: *Amici, sequam crucem et si nos fidem habemus vere in hoc signo vincemus* — "Friends, let us follow the cross, and if we have faith we will conquer."

The first landing was on March 20, 1519, near the Rio Tabasco, where there was fighting with the natives and a number made captives, among whom was La Marina, a native of Jalisco, sold here as a slave. She understood the language of the uplands as well as the coast, and thus, through her, Cortez could communicate with the people. La Marina soon learned the Spanish language and became the interpreter, ally and wife of the conqueror.

Cortez then sailed up the coast and dropped his anchors off Vera Cruz, April 21, 1519. Efforts to secure a peaceful reception on the part of the natives were unavailing. Discontent arose among the Spaniards. Cortez, acting with his customary decision, burned his ships, and on the 16th of August began his march toward the capital of the Aztecs.

With little incident or opposition the brave band of adventurers reached the table-lands and after a fight with the Tlaxacalans secured them as their allies. The natives were completely terrorized by the cannon and fire-arms, and the horse and rider of the cavalry were regarded as almost a god, or at least one being, as they had never seen a horse, so the invaders proceeded on their march, unopposed, and entered the present City of Mexico, Tuesday, November 8, 1519.

The Aztec king, Montezuma, came out to meet Cortez, tradition says, on the site of the present Hospital de Jesus, founded by him in commemoration of this meeting. The aggressions of the Spaniards, and their oppression of the Mexicans soon turned their apparent friendship to hatred, and they drove them out of the city over the Tlacopan causeway, now called Tacuba, on the night

of July 1, 1520, called *la noche triste,* or the Dismal or Sorrowful Night; retreating, Cortez fought another battle at Otumba on the 8th of July, where the Tlaxacalans came to his rescue and turned the tide of war in his favor, and he halted in the city of these allies. While at Tlaxacala reinforcements came from Cuba, and powder for the cannon and small arms was made from the sulphur taken from the crater of Popocatepetl.

Montezuma died on the 30th of June, the day before the Noche Triste, and his nephew, who, it is said, shot the arrow that caused Montezuma's death, was placed in command. The siege continued till the native garrison was starved into submission, and the Spaniards made their second and triumphal entry into the City of Mexico, August 13, 1521; but they found a different city than that when the meek Montezuma met them at the city gates. Almost all the treasure had been destroyed or concealed, and to extort the secret from Montezuma's nephew, Cortez cruelly put him to torture, but without avail; the wealth of jewels, gold and precious stones had been thrown into the lake.

Hernando Cortez, the conqueror, died in the town of Castelleja de la Questa, in Spain, December 2, 1547.

IN THE AZTEC CAPITAL

No better description of the great market-place of the Aztecs has ever been written than that penned by Cortez to Charles V. of Spain. He was the first European who ever beheld that novel spectacle and said:

"There is one square, twice as large as that of Salamanca, all surrounded by arcades, where there are daily more than sixty thousand souls, buying and selling, and where are found all the kinds of merchandise produced in these countries, including food products, jewels of gold and silver, lead, brass, copper, zinc, stones, bones, shells, and feathers. Stones are sold, hewn and unhewn; adobes, bricks, and wood, both in the rough and manu-

factured in various ways. There is a street for game, where they sell every sort of bird, such as chickens, partridges, quails, wild-ducks, fly-catchers, widgeons, turtle-doves, pigeons, reed-birds, parrots, eagles, owls, eaglets, owlets, falcons, sparrow-hawks, and kestrels, and they sell the skin of some of these birds of prey with their feathers, heads, beaks, and claws. They sell rabbits, hares, and small dogs, which latter they raise for the purpose of eating.

"There is a street set apart for the sale of herbs, where can be found every sort of root and medicinal herb that grows in the country. There are houses like apothecary shops, where prepared medicines are sold, as well as liquids, ointments, and plasters. There are places like our barber shops, where they wash, and shave their heads. There are houses where they supply food and drink for payment. There are men who carry burdens, such as are called in Castile porters. There is much wood, charcoal, braziers made of earthenware, and mats of divers kinds for beds, and others very thin, used as cushions and for carpeting halls and bedrooms. There are all sorts of vegetables and especially onions, leeks, garlic, borage, nasturtium, water-cresses, sorrel, thistles, and artichokes. There are many kinds of fruits, amongst others cherries, and prunes like the Spanish ones. They sell bees' honey and wax, and honey made of corn stalks, which is as sweet and syrup-like as that of sugar, also honey of a plant called maguey, which is better than most; from these same plants they make sugar and wine, which they also sell.

[The whitish, slippery, fermented liquor called pulque is extracted from the maguey and is still the popular drink in Mexico; as it must be drunk fresh, special pulque trains daily carry supplies to towns along the railway lines. Flavored with pineapple, strawberry, and other fresh fruit juices, and well iced, it is a very good drink, wholesome, and only intoxicating if drunk immoderately.]

"They also sell skeins of different kinds of spun cotton, in all colours, so that it seems quite like one of the silk markets of Granada, although it is on a greater scale; also as many different colours for painters as can be found in Spain and of as excellent hues. They sell deerskins, with all the hair tanned on them, and of different colours; much earthenware, exceedingly good, many sorts of pots, large and small, pitchers, large tiles, an infinite variety of vases, all of very singular clay, and most of them glazed and painted. They sell maize, both in the grain and made into bread, which is very superior in its quality to that of the other islands and mainland; pies of birds and fish, also much fish, fresh, salted, cooked, and raw; eggs of hens, and geese, and other birds in great quantity, and cakes made of eggs.

"Finally, besides those things I have mentioned, they sell in the city markets everything else that is found in the whole country and which, — on account of the profusion and number, do not occur to my memory, nor do I describe the things, because I do not know their names. Each sort of merchandise is sold in its respective street and they do not mix their kinds of merchandise of any species; thus they preserve perfect order. Everything is sold by a kind of measure, and until now, we have not seen anything sold by weight.

"There is in this square a very large building, like a court of justice, where there are always ten or twelve persons sitting as judges, and delivering their decisions upon all cases that arise in the markets. There are other persons in the same square who go about continually among the people, observing what is sold, and the measures used in selling, and they have been seen to break some which were false.

"This great city contains many mosques, or houses for idols, very beautiful edifices situated in the different precincts of it; in the principal ones of which dwell the religious orders of their sect, for whom, besides the

houses in which they keep their idols, there are very good habitations provided. All these priests dress in black and never cut or comb their hair from the time they enter the religious order until they leave it; and the sons of all the principal families, both of chiefs as well as of noble citizens are in these religious orders and habits from the age of seven or eight years, till they are taken away for the purpose of marriage. This happens more frequently with the first-born who inherit the property, than with the others. They have no access to women, nor are they allowed to enter the religious houses; they abstain from eating certain dishes, and more so at certain times of the year than at others."

DISCOVERY OF THE TREASURE

The discovery by Cortez of the treasure-house of the Montezumas has been thus described by Mr. MacNutt:

From the market-place Cortez went to the teocalli, or temple of the Aztecs, where Montezuma, who had been carried thither in his litter, awaited him. Six men were in readiness to spare him the fatigue of the ascent by carrying him up the steps, but, refusing their proffered assistance, he and his soldiers marched up the broad staircase to the top where the emperor received him. In reply to the courteous observation of Montezuma that he must be fatigued by the climb, Cortez answered, with a touch of bravado that was unusual to him, "Nothing ever tires me or my companions."

From the summit of the teocalli, towering as it did above the entire city, an extensive view of the capital and its surroundings was offered to the Spaniards, who gazed on the beauty of the scene with interest, increased by the sight of the system of canals and bridges, by which they might be completely cut off from retreat at Montezuma's pleasure.

The first thought of Cortez, however, was to plant a Christian church on the teocalli. Fray Bartolome de

Olmedo, who was present, objected and reasoned so earnestly against a step that was obviously premature and also dangerous, that the commander consented to refrain from mentioning his wish at that time. He asked permission, however, to see the interior of the sanctuaries and, after consulting with the priests, Montezuma accorded his consent. The sight that met the eyes of the Spaniards was a horrifying one. The gigantic images of Huitzilopochtli, the god of war, and his companion deity Tezcatlipoca, decorated with gold and precious stones and splashed with human gore, stood within the dim sanctuary that reeked with the blood of recent sacrifices and the heavy fumes of copal incense. On a golden salver lay human hearts.

Revolted by this ghastly spectacle, Cortez spoke to Montezuma through La Marina, saying, "My lord Montezuma, I know not how so great a sovereign and so wise a man as Your Majesty should never have perceived that these idols are no gods, but the things of evil, called devils." He further asked for permission to cast out the idols, cleanse the temple, and erect there a cross and a statue of the Blessed Virgin that Montezuma had already seen. The consternation and anger provoked by this demand were very great and Montezuma answered with offended dignity, "Had I thought, Senor Malintzin, that you would offer such an insult as you have thought well to utter, I would not have shown you my gods; we hold them to be very good, for they give us health, rains, good harvests, victory, and all we desire; hence we are bound to adore them and offer them sacrifice. I beg you to dishonor them no further."

Even Cortez saw that he had gone too far and, changing his tone, he took leave of his host, who remained behind to placate the outraged deities with fresh sacrifices.

The Spaniards, with the emperor's consent, fitted up a chapel in one of the rooms of the palace they occupied,

where mass was celebrated as long as the limited supply of wine held out. The soldiers said their prayers before the altar, with its statue of the Blessed Virgin and the symbol of the cross, and all assembled there for the Angelus.

While the altar in this improvised chapel was being erected, the carpenter discovered a masked door which, on being opened, was found to lead to a vast hall that served as a treasury. In the center of the floor was a great pile of gold and precious stones, while the walls round-about were hung with rich stuffs, mantles of costly feather-work, shields, arms and numerous ornaments of gold and silver exquisitely worked. This hoard was the treasure left by Montezuma's grandfather, the Emperor Axayacatl. After inspecting the secret treasure-house, Cortez ordered the door to be sealed up and the discovery never to be mentioned.

RULE OF THE VICEROYS

Under the name of New Spain, Mexico was ruled from 1521 to 1821 successively by five governors, two royal commissioners (audencias), and sixty-two viceroys, the last of whom, Juan O'Donoju, did not assume control.

During the administration of the first viceroy Don Antonio de Medoza, who ruled from 1535 to 1550, discoveries were actively prosecuted in the north, the first money was coined in Mexico, the University of Mexico and several colleges were founded and the first press in the New World was introduced. The School of Mines, which is still standing and yearly graduating talented men, was founded by the viceroy, the Marquis of Branciforte. The construction was begun in 1797 and the building was completed in 1813. Its total cost was over $1,600,000.

CHAPTER VII

"THE SORROWFUL NIGHT"

Among the dramatic episodes of Mexican history there is none more interesting than that of " la Noche Triste " or the Sorrowful Night when Cortez and his men evacuated the City of Mexico with their treasure, July 1, 1520. The following graphic description is given by Mr. Francis Augustus MacNutt, in his able work on " Fernando Cortez and the Conquest of Mexico ":

" The decision to leave the city silently and as secretly as possible, under cover of night, having been agreed to by most of the captains, preparations for flight were at once undertaken. The accumulated treasure that had already cost such rivers of tears and blood was piled in a room of the palace and, the royal fifth being first carefully separated, the remainder was divided amongst the officers and men according to the provisions already stipulated. The quantity, however, was so great that it was impossible to carry it away, and the men were cautioned against loading themselves down with heavy weights that might prove their destruction. The wiser among them chose pearls and precious stones, with only such a small quantity of gold as they could easily carry; the more avaricious could not turn their backs on the shining heap of metal, but weighted themselves until they could hardly move. The hour fixed for departing was midnight on the thirtieth of June.

" To Gonzalo de Sandoval was assigned the vanguard, composed of two hundred foot-soldiers and twenty horsemen. They were charged with one of the most important duties of the march, namely, the laying down of the port-

able bridge wherever the ditches in the causeway had not been filled in. This bridge was carried by four hundred Tlascalans, who were under the protection of fifty soldiers commanded by a captain, Magarino. Cortez took command of the centre division of his forces. Two hundred and fifty Tlascalans, protected by forty shield-bearers, dragged the artillery in this division, in which were the baggage, the treasure, the prisoners, and the women. The latter comprised Marina and two of Montezuma's daughters who were placed under a guard composed of thirty Spaniards and three hundred auxiliaries; two sons of Montezuma, the young King of Texcoco, and a few others who had escaped the general execution that afternoon, were among the prisoners. The rear-guard was composed of the main body of infantry and most of the force of cavalry.

LEFT THE SLEEPING CITY

"The night was dark with a drizzling rain. Leaving fires lighted, the troop cautiously emerged at the hour of midnight into the deserted streets of the sleeping city, making its way as silently as possible along the street leading to the Tlacopan causeway. Magarino and his men had placed their bridge over the first ditch and the vanguard and artillery had passed safely over when, out of the darkness, was heard a cry of alarm that was quickly taken up by other Mexican sentinels, and in a moment the city was roused. The priests, keeping watch at the sacred fires on the teocalli, began to beat the sacred drum, whose lugubrious roll could be heard for miles. From all sides the Aztec warriors fell upon their escaping foes, the surface of the lake on both sides of the causeway became alive with light canoes, darting hither and thither, from which volleys of arrows and sling stones were discharged into the now disordered mass of panic-stricken fugitives. The bridge, upon which their safety so greatly depended, was found to be wedged fast and

immovable after the passage of so many horses and heavy guns, while at the second ditch, the people in the fore were being driven into the water by the pressure of the oncoming multitude from behind. Terror banished discipline and the retreat became a mad scramble for safety, in which each one thought only of himself.

VICTIMS SEIZED FOR SACRIFICE

" The second ditch became quickly choked with guns, baggage, dead bodies of men and horses, over which the later comers sought to struggle to the opposite side. Cortez, leaving those of his own people who had managed to cross the second ditch, returned to the scene of confusion to lend what assistance he might to the rear-guard. Many of those who fell into the water met a more terrible fate than mere drowning, being seized by the Mexicans and carried off in their canoes to die on the stone of sacrifice. The third ditch was still spanned by a single beam, over which some of the more agile of the first to reach it were able to cross, but the onrush from behind was too great and the attack of the enemy too fierce to allow many to profit by this narrow road to safety. The commander's voice, giving orders and seeking to calm his people, was lost in the uproar of battle, the shrieks of the drowning, and the wild shouts of the assailants; the scene of confusion at the second ditch repeated itself. It was at this ditch that Alvarado is alleged to have made his incredible leap, one of the exploits of the conquest so firmly rooted in three centuries of tradition and popular folklore that no proof, however lucid, of its entirely apocryphal character will ever dislodge it. The last of the baggage and treasure was here abandoned, and the Mexicans allowed themselves to be diverted from further pursuit by their desire to collect the rich spoils.

WHEN CORTEZ WEPT

" The dawn that broke after the Sorrowful Night found the remnant of the army at Popothal, a village situated

on the shore of the lake. And what a sad remnant! Forty-six horses were dead, the artillery no longer existed, hardly a musket had been saved, the treasure was lost, all the prisoners had fallen and the few men who filed before the commander, as he sat on the steps of a temple with unaccustomed tears rolling down his cheeks, were soaked to the skin, destitute of arms, and so caked from head to foot with mud and the blood of their wounds, as to be scarcely recognizable. (The site is still pointed out and a venerable tree standing there is known as the Arbol de la Noche Triste, or 'Tree of the Sorrowful Night.')

"The actual number of the dead cannot be positively known, for the figures given by different writers are hopelessly conflicting. Prescott, whose judgment it is safe to follow, adopted the estimate of Gomara, according to which four hundred and fifty Spaniards and four thousand of their Indian allies perished during the retreat. Cortez, in his letter to the Emperor, reduces these figures to one hundred and fifty Spaniards and two thousand Indians, but his tendency throughout his reports was to minimize his losses. Oviedo, quoting Juan Cano, one of the gentlemen present, states that eleven hundred and seventy Spaniards and eight thousand Indians were killed and missing. Cano's estimate was made in Tlascala, and included all who fell during the whole of the retreat from Mexico until safety was reached inside the loyal republic, but his authority is questionable. He it was who invented the tale that two hundred and seventy men of the Spanish garrison, who were ignorant of the plan to march out of the city, were left behind in the quarters where, after surrendering to the Mexicans, they were all sacrificed. He does not explain how these men were kept in ignorance, while their comrades departed with the artillery, baggage, and all of the treasure they could carry. In Herrera's account of the plan to escape from Mexico by night, the historian records that Ojeda

Brigadier-General Scott, U. S. A., making a round of the refugee prison camp at Fort Bliss

Col. Chas. M. O'Connor, of the Second Division, U. S. A., in camp at Texas City, Tex.

Loading marines on transport at Philadelphia

Marines in New York Harbor en route to Mexican waters

Detachment of the Fifteenth U. S. Cavalry at Fort Bliss, Tex.

The same detachment in a practice drill

The "Texas" at sea on her way to Mexico

The "Texas" approaching Vera Cruz

was particularly charged by Cortez with the care of the wounded and to see that no one was left behind in the hurried preparations.

"The Spaniards who remained behind were either unwilling to relinquish the gold collected in the quarters or, failing to cross the first bridge, found themselves driven back by the crowd of Mexican warriors that cut them off from joining their comrades. The latter explanation seems the more probable. Herrera fixes their number at one hundred; Acosta mentions the fact but gives no figures. Those unfortunates managed to hold out for three days, at the end of which time they were forced by hunger to make terms with the Mexicans. Although there is nowhere an authentic record of their end, there is little doubt as to their fate. Deplorable as were the losses, the condition of those who survived the Sorrowful Night and reached Tacuba was hardly less discouraging, for so broken and exhausted were they that not even in defense of their lives did they seem able to raise a hand, while their horses could scarcely stand on their trembling legs, much less carry their riders."

CHARACTER OF CORTEZ.

Few, if any, of the companions of Cortez understood him, says Mr. MacNutt. His admirers, who were ready to follow him anywhere, were attracted by the magnetism which, as a born leader, he exercised powerfully over just such men as they. He was their alter ego, in whom they beheld reflected their own daring aspirations, but united to powers of command as alien to their inferior abilities as they were necessary to the success of their wild undertakings.

Cortez was indeed daring, but he was never rash.

His seemingly spontaneous decisions were, in reality, the result of plans carefully formed, of cautious calculations that seemed to take cognizance of every emergency, to forestall every risk. In the execution of his designs

he was relentless, hence the unmerited reputation for cruelty that has obscured his really kindly instincts and many generous deeds. Both his resolution and his perseverance were implacable, and those who did not willingly bend to his will were made to break. "Be my friend, or I kill you," not inaccurately describes his attitude to those who crossed his path. His equanimity was never disturbed by misfortune, and, as he sustained success without undue elation, so did he support reverses with fortitude; defeat might be a momentary check but was never accepted as final. Besides being compared with Julius Cesar as a general, he has been ranked with Augustus and Charles V. as a statesman, nor does he unduly suffer from such lofty comparisons, for he unquestionably possessed many of the qualities essential to greatness, in common with them. He ruled his motley band with a happy mixture of genial comradeship and inflexible discipline and hence succeeded, where an excess of either the one or the other would have brought failure. He knew when and whom to trust and, though he was ready with his friendship, he avoided favoritism, with the consequence that his men were united by the bond of a common trust in their commander.

CHAPTER VIII

THE REVOLUTIONARY WARS

The modern history of Mexico and the commencement of the almost continuous internecine wars may be said to date from the " grito de Dolores " on the night of the 16th of September, 1810, by the parish priest of Dolores, Don Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, who gathered about him many trusty followers under his banner to the cry of " Long live religion! Long live our Most Holy Mother of Guadalupe! Long live America, and death to bad government! " This cry is what is known as " el grito de Dolores."

Several efforts to cause rebellion against the Spanish authorities had been made previous to this date, in fact ever since 1798, during the incumbency of the forty-fifth viceroy, Miguel Jose de Azanza, but they were all suppressed.

Hidalgo marshaled a considerable force and was victorious in several engagements, but he and his lieutenants, Allande, Aldama, and Jimenez, were captured and put to death in 1811, the first on the 31st of July and the three last named on June 26. The bullets that crashed through these patriotic breasts terminated the first stage of the war for independence.

One of the greatest figures in Mexican history then came to the front, Jose Maria Morelos y Pavon, the parish priest of Caracuaro, who by his audacity, valor, and military sagacity was acceded a position at the head of the leaders of the cause of independence. After many notable engagements, in which he was almost always vic-

torious, he captured Acapulco on April 12, 1813, thus ending his second campaign. On the 14th of September, 1813, in the town of Chilpamcingo, the first Mexican Congress was installed, which two months later (November 6) issued the declaration of independence and decreed the emancipation of the slaves. The first provisional constitution was adopted October 22, 1814.

Morelos was eventually overcome by being betrayed by a deserter from his ranks named Carranco, was taken to Mexico, tried, and sentenced to be shot. The sentence was carried out at San Cristobal Ecatepec on the 22nd of December, 1815.

FATE OF PATRIOTIC CHIEFTAINS

But the cause of independence was still sustained by many leaders in different parts of the Republic, among them being Francisco Javier Mina, a Spanish officer, who resolved to do battle for the independence of Mexico. He disembarked at the port of Soto la Marina on April 15, 1817, with 500 men recruited in the United States, and marched rapidly into the interior, gaining many victories. He was apprehended at the ranch called Venadito, and was shot on the 11th of November, 1817. Many other patriotic chiefs arose to lead the independent movement, but most of them met the fate of their predecessors. Among these was Guerrero, who, after many hazardous exploits and brilliant achievements, finally, on the 10th of January, 1821, held a conference with Augustin Iturbide, brigadier-general in command of the royalist forces, at Iturbide's request and the two leaders agreed to proclaim independence. The latter proclaimed what is known as " The Plan of Iguala " on February 24, 1821.

Iturbide, then assuming command of the forces, marched on Mexico, making Valladolid (now Morelia), Queretaro, and Puebla, capitulate on the way. On reaching Mexico the Viceroy Apodaca was deposed July 5, 1821.

LAST OF THE VICEROYS.

The sixty-second and last viceroy, Juan O'Donoju, arrived at Vera Cruz on the 30th of July, and, upon hearing of the condition of affairs, issued a proclamation and entered into communication with the independents. Iturbide went to Cordoba, where a conference was held, resulting in the treaty of Cordoba, which, with slight modifications, confirmed the plan of Iguala and Spanish domination in Mexico, which had lasted 300 years, closed forever when, on the 27th of September, 1821, Iturbide made his triumphal entry into the capital.

ITURBIDE AS EMPEROR

The second Mexican Congress, the first after securing independence, met on February 24, 1822, and elected Iturbide emperor on the 19th of May of the same year. He was crowned and anointed with great pomp and ceremony in the great cathedral of the capital on the 21st of June following as Augustine I., Emperor of Mexico. His reign was short. The people who had been warring so long could not settle down to peaceful pursuits. Ambitious leaders thirsted for high places, and the smoke of the battles for independence had scarce lifted before General Santa Anna headed a revolutionary movement in Vera Cruz, proclaimed a republican form of government and compelled Iturbide to abdicate and leave the country. He became desirous to revisit it, and returning to Mexico, was arrested immediately upon disembarking, taken to Padilla, brought before the legislature of Tamaulipas in session there, and by that body condemned to death. He was shot July 19th, 1824, just five days after landing.

RISE OF THE REPUBLIC

The Federal Republic was established on the ruins of the Empire. The third Mexican Congress assembled November 7, 1823, and proclaimed on October 4, 1824, a republican constitution, which was patterned closely upon

that of the United States. The first president of Mexico, the patriot General Guadalupe Victoria, took the oath of office on October 10. Congress was dissolved December 24, 1824, and the first constitutional Congress convened January 1, 1825. During this year England and the United States formally recognized Mexico.

Independence being secured, two parties came into existence: The Spanish, which became the Centralists, and the Republicans, who became Federalists. To this division is due the constant internal disturbances and agitations in Mexico from 1828 to 1846. During this period five radical organic changes swayed the people between centralism and federation.

The two parties succeeded each other in power, mostly through revolutions, until 1847, when the war with the United States, which had commenced the year previous, ended and the latter nation acquired more than two-fifths of the Mexican territory. After the declaration of peace between the two countries the Mexican Liberal party remained in power (except from 1853 to 1855, when General Santa Anna governed as dictator), carrying out its theories of government. In the year 1857 the constitution now in force in Mexico was framed by a constitutional assembly.

THE ERA OF MAXIMILIAN

In 1861 England, Spain, and France formed an alliance to declare war against Mexico, but the alliance had been scarcely perfected when the two first-named powers withdrew and France was left alone in the enterprise. War between the two nations lasted from 1862 until 1867 without the French gaining any decided foothold.

Possessing themselves finally of the capital, they established an empire, aided by a number of disaffected Mexicans, and placed the crown upon Maximilian of Hapsburg, Archduke of Austria.

The archduke arrived in the City of Mexico on June

12, 1864, accompanied by his wife, Carlotta, daughter of Leopold I., king of the Belgians. These two unfortunate beings were crowned emperor and empress of Mexico with great solemnity in the cathedral and ruled a portion of the country until 1867, when the perfidy of Bazaine and the cowardice of Napoleon III. destroyed the life of Maximilian and the reason of Carlotta.

Maximilian, bereft of the aid and protection of the French, intrenched himself in Queretaro, where he was made prisoner by the Republicans and shot, together with the Imperialist Generals Miralon and Mexia, on the Cerro de las Campanas, on the 19th of June, 1867.

Benito Juarez, of Indian birth, and possessed of great ability, patriotism, and energy, was the president of the Republic during the turbulent times of the reformation and the war with France. He entered the capital victorious on the 15th of July, 1867, and retained the presidency until his death in 1872, being the only Mexican who died during the occupancy of that office. His immediate successor was Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada, who retained the office until 1876, when he was unseated by the revolution of Palo Blanco. General Porfirio Diaz succeeded Lerdo de Tejada in May, 1877, and was followed by General Manuel Gonzalez in 1880. In 1884 General Diaz was elected to a second term, and was continued at the head of the government until 1910. His administration was attended with great progress and prosperity.

CHAPTER IX

JUAREZ, THE INDIAN PRESIDENT

Benito Juarez stood out conspicuously in the history of Mexico as a thoroughly honest and incorruptible man. He was thus placed in striking contrast with the representatives of some of the European nations with whom he was called upon to treat in 1862, says Mr. Arthur Howard Noll in his story of the struggle for constitutional government in Mexico.

Not the least difficult of the tasks which confronted Juarez in his public career, and in his efforts to establish constitutional government, was that of maintaining a high standard of morality in his administration. The public men of Mexico, who had been trained in the old Spanish school of politics, or in the later school of Santa Anna, were accustomed to no such distinctions between right and wrong as the new constitution presupposed or as Juarez in his government made. They were incapable of appreciating the nice distinctions between honesty and fraud being constantly made by their Indian president.

Juarez was a patriot. Love of country, and the desire to set her far forward toward the realization of the destiny which he felt to be hers by nature and by the will of Providence, actuated his whole life and engaged all his energies of body and mind. It took strange forms sometimes—as, for example, at the breaking out of the war with the Interventionists, when he refused all offers of foreign troops for his army, declaring that he would invite no foreigner to shoot down men who, though in

rebellion against Mexico, were yet citizens of that nation.

Simple in his tastes, not personally ambitious, deprecating pomp or display, Benito Juarez gave his life to the effort to set law above force in Mexico, and served his country in honorable poverty in the chief magistracy for thirteen years, the greater part of the time an exile from his capital.

JUAREZ ELECTED PRESIDENT

In August, 1867, Juarez called for a general election for members of Congress and for president. The election was to determine the propriety of his action in continuing in the presidency in Paso del Norte after the expiration of his former term of office. He was elected over Sebastion Lerdo de Tejada and Porfirio Diaz, and his action at Paso del Norte was thereby fully sustained. He began a new constitutional term in the presidency, upon his installation in that office in December.

It might seem that the country had now had its fill of revolutions and pronunciamentos, and was ready to cooperate with the president in an effort to maintain peace and constitutional government. But the administration of Juarez was much disturbed by revolutionary attempts made by those who were still under the spell of the ancient Spanish methods of "practical politics." Santa Anna entered the Republic with no very honorable intentions, we may be sure. He was taken prisoner and sentenced to be shot, but was allowed to escape, and returned to the place of his former exile. Probably the measure by which Juarez himself would have preferred that his administration of the government from 1867 to 1871 should be best known was his decree of general amnesty. Under its provisions, even Santa Anna was enabled to return to Mexico and spend the remainder of his days at the capital.

JUAREZ RE-ELECTED

As the electoral campaign of 1871 approached, Juarez was advised by many of his best friends to decline a re-election. They urged that, inestimable as was the value of the services he had rendered in securing the constitution and in maintaining the government of Mexico thereunder during the period of stress and storm from 1861 to 1867, he was not a pronounced success in the administration of the presidency. His pre-eminent quality — adherence to a great principle in the face of opposition — did not especially fit him for the task of building upon the foundation he had laid. He was blind to the actual needs of the nation, it was said. His mind was giving way, some alleged — and such might have been the case in one who had passed through all that he had suffered. He remained, however, firm in the belief that his presence in the administration was necessary for the continuance of the effort to maintain good government in Mexico, and prevent a suspension of the constitution which had been established at so much cost. He therefore entered as a candidate against the same opponents as four years previously. The contest was an exciting one, and his election was extremely close. Congress met on the sixteenth of September, and it was not until the twelfth of October that Juarez was officially declared elected by the vote of a plurality of the states. Pronunciamentos followed, but Juarez, with indomitable energy, confronted every attempt to overthrow the constitution and return to the former methods of governing the country by force.

DEATH OF JUAREZ

On the seventeenth day of July, 1872, he who had never before known more than a day's sickness, was

taken suddenly ill with heart disease. Near midnight on the eighteenth he died. Two days later the body was taken to the national palace, where it lay in state, under guard of government officials, and was visited by throngs of Mexicans of all classes. On the twenty-second it was borne through the streets of the capital, followed by five thousand people, and laid to rest in the Panteon of San Fernando. There, over the dust of Benito Juarez, now rests an exquisitely sculptured marble group representing the grief of Mexico over the death of her great national hero. Thither, on the eighteenth of July every year, lovers of constitutional government go to rehearse the story of his noble and devoted life, and of how through his efforts the constitution of Mexico came into being.

"THE MAN IN THE BLACK COAT"

Benito Juarez was short of stature, but of powerful frame, like most of the Zapotecans, and had small hands and feet. His was a "very dark complexioned Indian face, which was not disfigured, but on the contrary made more interesting, by a very large scar across it. He had black piercing eyes, and gave the impression of a man reflecting much and deliberating long and carefully before acting." His dress was that of the Mexican student or professional man — plain black broadcloth, unrelieved by any official or military insignia. This placed him in such striking contrast with the brilliant dress affected by other Mexican officials, who were, almost to a man, military officers, and with the foreign diplomats with whom he came in contact, that he was known in semi-diplomatic language as "The President in the Black Coat." While other public men in Mexico had military titles, he preferred to be known simply as Ciudadano — Citizen.

They were greatly mistaken who supposed him defi-

cient in mental acquirements. He was able to write French with ease; and could read English, though he never attempted to speak it. He was well read in constitutional law. History was his favorite study. He received the degree of doctor of civil law from his alma mater, and the honor was worthily conferred. His state papers were models of clearness and exact style.

CHAPTER X

THE CONSTITUTIONAL STRUGGLE

In seeking independence the Spanish colonies in America were moved by the democratic doctrines of France and by the example of the United States. Their long submission to Spanish rule, however, had given rise to traditions which tended to keep them loyal to monarchy. But when Ferdinand VII. fell into the hands of Napoleon the bond of attachment to Spain was weakened and signs of revolt appeared. The open struggle for independence, which began in 1810 and lasted with occasional interruptions till 1824, stands in marked contrast with the efforts of the English colonies. It had many characteristics of a civil war, on account of the large number of those who advocated continued dependence on Spain, while the more complete unity of purpose in the English colonies gave their war for independence the character of a struggle against a foreign enemy.

An early suggestion of a national representative government for Mexico appeared in the proposition made by the ayuntamiento (city council) of the City of Mexico to the viceroy that he should call a national assembly composed of representatives of the provinces. The proposition was favored by the viceroy, but was opposed by the audencia, who represented the spirit of Spanish possession and dominion. The higher clergy, moreover, as holders of great power, opposed all attempts at independence, while the lower clergy, to which Miguel Hidalgo Costilla belonged, became the earliest champions of the movement.

THE "GOVERNMENTAL COUNCIL"

After the overthrow of Hidalgo's forces and the capture of the leader it became evident to the patriots that they ought to be represented by some formally constituted government. An assembly, composed principally of officers of the army, was therefore convened. In accordance with its decree a governmental council was established, consisting at first of three members and later of five, whose collective title was the "Supreme Governmental Council of America."

In the exercise of their new authority they cited the military officers, the governors, and alcaldes of the Indian pueblos of the vicinity to take the oath of obedience and fidelity to the council, which governed in the name of King Ferdinand VII.

The use of the king's name was clearly an act of policy, through which the council hoped to gain forces at the expense of the enemy, and to turn to the cause of freedom those who desired independence, but who halted at the idea of fighting against the king.

The attempt on the part of the council to make an agreement with the viceroy only led him to reject with indignation the project of an independent power in Mexico. Strictly speaking, the council was an illegal body, deriving authority neither from a popular election nor from any existing legitimate source. It was feared, however, by the Spanish party that it might gain recognition and exercise the functions of a legitimate government. A price was therefore set on the head of each member, but its subsequent dissolution was due rather to internal dissension than to external attack.

THE FIRST CONGRESS

On the first of September, 1813, a Congress constituted by popular election was assembled in Chipancingo. This body proclaimed anew the independence of Mexico, and

agreed upon a republican constitution, which was published in Apanzingan in October, 1814. This constitution was also short-lived, being set aside by the adoption of the Spanish constitution of 1812 in so far as it was applicable to Mexico.

Between 1815 and 1820 Mexico was little disturbed by military operations, but finally the cause of independence was revived, and on the 24th of February, 1820, the plan of Iguala was published. By this instrument an independent limited monarchy was erected in Mexico, and the throne was to be offered to Ferdinand VII., and in case of his refusal to other princes designated. The Roman Catholic faith was declared to be the sole religion of the state, and the equality of all social classes was proclaimed. The plan of Iguala, a compromise between political independence and religious intolerance, found very general favor; even the new viceroy, O'Donoju, accepted it with only slight modifications, and recognized the new Imperio Mejicano. A provisional governmental council was then formed, which was charged with the legislative authority until the Cortes should be installed. The executive power was temporarily intrusted to a regency of three persons, who should exercise it till the accession of the prince.

In carrying out the provisions of the plan of Iguala, as modified by the agreement at Cordova between O'Donoju and Iturbide, it was discovered that the scheme was not approved by either the king or the Cortes of Spain, and that in Mexico itself there were many republicans dissatisfied with it.

ITURBIDE PROCLAIMED EMPEROR

In this condition of affairs Iturbide, supported by a portion of the army, was proclaimed emperor. But his conduct in his temporary use of power only increased the opposition which he had encountered in the beginning, and, finding it impossible to maintain an independ-

ent imperial government in Mexico, he abdicated and went into exile.

The Congress, taking advantage of the departure of Iturbide, declared that his administration had been a rule of force and not of right, and that all of his acts were illegal and subject to revision. It then placed the executive power in the hands of a triumvirate composed of Negrete, Bravo, and Victoria, representing the Spanish, the monarchical, and the republican parties.

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1824

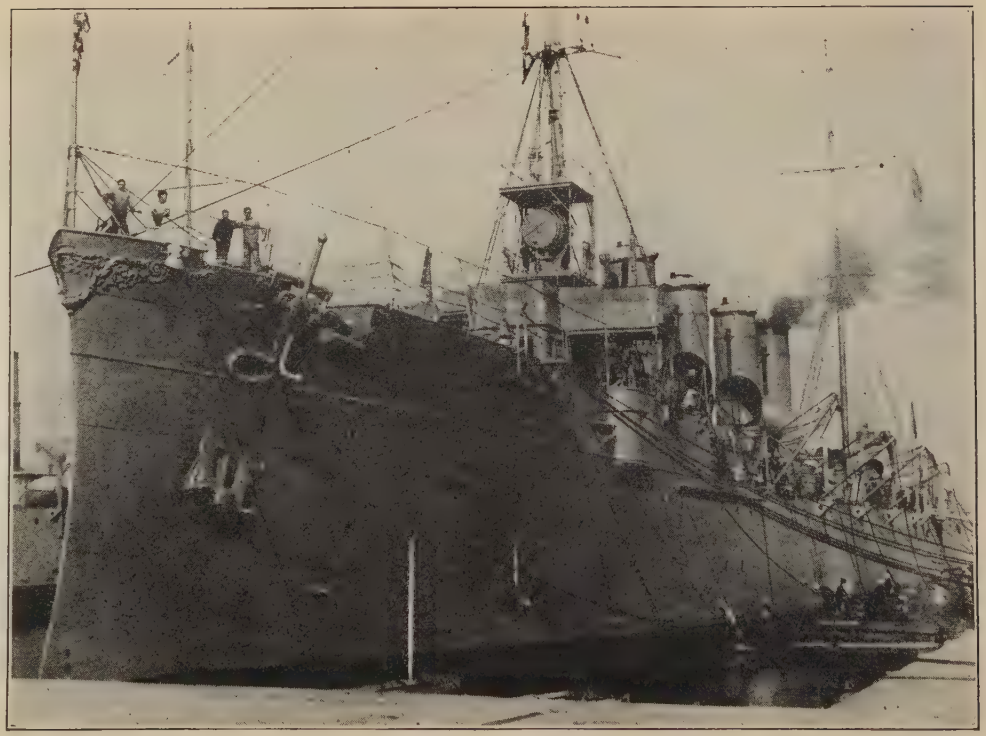
A new Congress was installed on the 7th of November, 1823, and on the 3rd of December it began the discussion of a project for a fundamental law, which was approved January 31, 1824, and "in thirty-six articles contained the basis of the future political constitution." Through the adoption of this constitution the nation acquired a popular representative, federal, republican government. But this was only a provisional government, and was set aside on the adoption of the definitive constitution of 1824, which in many particulars was a copy of the constitution of the United States.

FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF 1836

The constitution of 1824 remained in force eleven years, but during these years Mexico was not without internal disturbances, and in 1833, by a revolution, General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna was made president. After a temporary retirement a reactionary movement restored him to power in 1834. Having allied himself with the Clericals and Centralists, he dissolved the Congress on the 31st of May, set aside the liberal decrees which that body had passed, made the vice-president, Gomez Farias, resign, and broke openly with the Federalists. The new Congress, which was installed in January, 1835, undertook to reform the constitution of 1824, and in 1836 a new fundamental law was issued, which rejected the federal principle and established a centralized government,

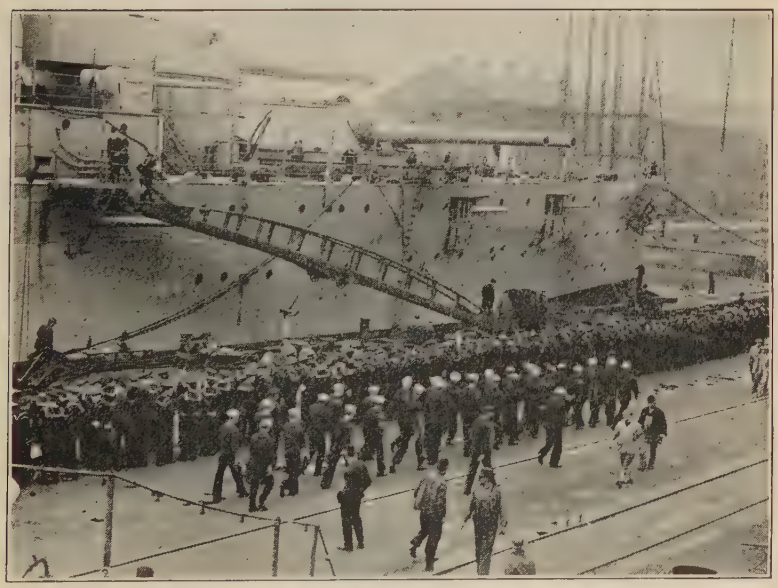
Using a detachable range finder for a field battery

Wigwagging for orders in practice drill



U. S. Scout Cruiser Chester, which aided in the occupation of Vera Cruz

Inspecting the bluejackets on the "Texas" just before sailing



Shore leave detail from the battleship "New York"

Machine gun platoon of United States Regulars at El Paso, Tex.

Machine gun in readiness for action

the whole territory of the Republic being divided into departments instead of the pre-existing states, the departments into districts, and these again into partidos. By thus enlarging the functions of the central government, the grounds of party separation were made more conspicuous. Every adherent of federalism became an opponent of the new order of things, and in the next decade Mexico was without an effective constitution. Power rested with the most successful military leader. In 1847, however, the Congress passed an act which brought into force again the constitution of 1824 with certain amendments.

A MILITARY "PLAN"

Without attempting to note the numerous "pronunciamentos" made and the "bases" promulgated, attention may be called to the "plan" promulgated by the garrison of Ayutla. According to this plan Santa Anna was to be deprived of the power which he exercised arbitrarily, an ad interim president was to be appointed, and a constitutional convention convened. The garrison of Acapulco seconded this plan with slight modifications, and Ignacio Comonfort became the leader of the new revolution. On the 8th of August, 1855, Santa Anna left the presidency, and a few days later went into exile. On the 13th of the same month the garrison of the capital also adopted the plan of Ayutla. The 4th of October General Alvarez was elected ad interim president, and in February, 1856, the constituent Congress, or constitutional convention, was assembled. Comonfort, who had become president on the resignation of Alvarez, now issued, in accordance with authority conferred upon him by the plan of Ayutla and Acapulco, an "Estatuto organico provisional de la Republica Mejicana." The estatuto was a quasi-constitution, in 125 articles, which organized completely the executive and judicial powers in accordance with the principles of centralism, and which

detailed with much method and in liberal sense the civil and political rights of the Mexicans; but which obliterated all this, as with one dash of the pen, by Article 82, conceived as follows: "The President of the Republic shall be able to act discretionally, when, in the judgment of the council of ministers, this shall be necessary in order to defend the independence or the integrity of the territory, or to maintain the established order, or to preserve the public tranquility: but in no case shall he be able to impose the penalty of death, nor those penalties prohibited by Article 55."

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1857

The new constitution, which was formulated in the meantime by the constitutional Congress, was finally adopted on the 5th of February, 1857. But this constitution, by abolishing the ecclesiastical and military privileges, excited vigorous opposition. As a result of this opposition, the nation found itself, in 1858, in civil war, with Benito Juarez as leader of the Constitutional party, while General Zuloaga, and later General Miramon, led the Revolutionary forces and took possession of the capital. Juarez, in accordance with Article 29 of the constitution, received extraordinary powers to suspend the individual guarantees recognized by this law. During the same year, 1861, the Revolutionary party entered into certain foreign alliances against the Constitutional party, led by Juarez, and from these alliances proceeded the series of events which constitute the imperial episode of Maximilian's reign. While Maximilian, backed by the power of France, was attempting to establish an imperial government in Mexico, the forces of the Constitutionalists were scattered on the frontiers. Three months after the withdrawal of the French troops, in obedience to the demands of the United States, the Imperialists were undone, Maximilian, Miramon, and Mejia had been shot,

and the way was once more open to the Constitutionalists. The constitution of 1857 became again effective fundamental law of the land, and, with a number of subsequent amendments, has continued in force to the present time.

AN OPTIMISTIC VIEW

After the retirement of General Diaz in 1910 and the assumption of power by President Madero, the optimistic business men of Mexico looked forward with great confidence to the future. One well-known writer expressed their views as follows:

"New times and manners have come to Mexico. New figures of national importance have stepped upon the stage to direct the destinies of the land which the clear-headed, unenthusiastic scientist, von Humboldt, called 'The Treasure House of the World.'

"New policies and processes of government have been inaugurated; although new to Mexico, they have stood the test of practice in the other great republics. By this proved standard they may be depended upon to impart fresh vigor and irresistible impetus to the progress and development of Mexico.

"The events which prefaced the administrative changes in Mexico were revolutionary. History records few important steps in the advancement of any nation which were not conceived and born in revolution. Instances are far less common wherein righteous and successful revolutions have not purified the national life-streams and made for political, social and economic well-being.

"Mexico was at peace for thirty-five years. Neither foreign wars nor domestic turmoil had disturbed her tranquility and interrupted the wonderful material development fostered by the establishment and inflexible maintenance of law and order.

"This gave her unique distinction among the nations. While Mexico's sword was sheathed, the United States,

England, France, Germany, Russia, China, Japan and Spain, wasted billions of gold and sacrificed thousands of lives in wars.

" A hundred-fold more men and money than the revolution in Mexico cost, were expended by the United States since 1876 in Indian wars alone.

" What has occurred in Mexico was an anti-climax. Like most contingencies which are viewed in anticipation with profound apprehension, the prospect of the passing of the old regime in Mexico and the commencement of the new, when it became a reality, presented itself in far less ominous guise than it assumed when it was merely a vague, much debated possibility.

" It was an anti-climax because it came prematurely and unexpectedly. So swift was the march of events in the six months which compassed the duration of the revolution that the country was spared most of the prostration and disorganization that come with armed political movements.

" When the transfer of authority came, the vital elements of the government were substantially unimpaired. The federal treasury was intact; the cash reserves had not been drained to finance a long and costly war; business was interfered with but slightly; the country had not been stripped of able-bodied men; the lines of communication had been interrupted, but not destroyed, or even seriously damaged; the national credit continued high; federal revenues had fallen off to a surprisingly small extent, and the damage to public and private property in the cities and towns of consequence was limited.

" In the foreign money markets confidence in the national stability of Mexico and in her possession of inherent vital power to survive political shocks that would cripple a less wealthy, resourceful country, was shown in impressive fashion.

" The public funds and many of her standard railway, banking and industrial securities were not seriously

affected, and in a majority of cases either maintained their price, or were given higher quotations. A month after peace was declared London was buying National Railway securities at from $2.25 to $2.50 higher than the prices quoted before the revolution.

"In every fibre of her being Mexico, in 1911, is a thousand times stronger and better buttressed to maintain and enhance her financial, political and industrial respectability and place than she was in 1876, when Porfirio Diaz came to government. Now she has everything with which to do. Then she had virtually nothing, save her inexhaustible natural resources, which were sparsely developed.

"Thirty-five years of peace and prosperity have sped her too far along the road of progress to warrant fair-minded, competent critics in assuming that she will retrograde, or that her affairs will not be patriotically, competently and profitably administered. Mexico will press on."

CHAPTER XI

MEXICO UNDER DIAZ

In an election under the Constitution of 1857, held in 1871, four years after the City of Mexico had surrendered to General Diaz after the execution of the Emperor Maximilian, the opposing candidates were the then President Benito Juarez, Lerdo de Tejada, and Porfirio Diaz. Juarez was elected December 1, 1871, and took his seat for the third time, the result of which was a slight revolution, occurring in various parts of the country. These were headed by Porfirio Diaz on his hacienda of La Noria, in Oaxaca. A manifesto was issued proposing a convention and assembly of notables, to reorganize a government with Diaz as commander-in-chief of the army, until the establishment of such government. The movement was interrupted by the death of Juarez and the succession of the president of the Supreme Court, Lerdo de Tejada. The administration of Lerdo was peaceful, and he was elected president December 1, 1872, continuing in office for three years, during which time the railroad between Vera Cruz and the City of Mexico, called the Mexican Railway, was opened on January 1, 1873.

DIAZ PROCLAIMED PRESIDENT

Another revolution occurred in Oaxaca, January 15, 1876, and once more the country was in the midst of a strife. Lerdo was forced to leave the country, and General Diaz entered the City of Mexico November 24, 1876, and was proclaimed president; on the 6th of May, 1877, he was declared constitutional president, in which office he remained until November 30, 1880, during which time

he put down small revolutions and executed nine revolutionists on June 24, 1879.

On the 25th of September, 1880, Congress elected General Manuel Gonzales president. During the administration of General Gonzales the celebrated Nickel riots of 1883 occurred, the common people refusing to accept nickel coin in the place of silver and copper, entailing on them considerable loss. The national debt of Mexico was also greatly increased, and his administration was practically a financial failure.

General Diaz was again elected president and took the oath of office December 1, 1884, and at each recurring election to 1910 succeeded himself.

A MAN OF ACTION

On taking the office in 1884, says the noted authority on Mexico, Mr. Reau Campbell, Diaz found an absolutely empty treasury and a country without credit. It was a condition and not a theory that confronted Diaz — a condition that theories alone could not ameliorate. Urgent and immediate action was the only remedy for the deplorable state of the country. General Diaz was the man of action, man of the hour, and delayed not till the morrow. To perceive a need, with him, was to act at once, and to promote the prosperity and peace of his country was his only aim. The railroads and the telegraphs had only been proposed; the commerce of the country was in a state of lethargy. Diaz' quick, restless, active disposition called it to life, and his liberal, wise and efficient administration of the government made it possible to complete the enterprises of communication and commerce, and it so promoted the internal improvements in every direction that his own acts have placed President Diaz among the foremost statesmen of the world.

A patriotic Mexican writer says: "With the restless, inconstant character of our race, the long tenure of office by one man is one of the greatest dangers of the peace

of the nation. Yet, notwithstanding, General Diaz has succeeded in avoiding shipwreck on this shoal, making himself all but indispensable to the completion of the reconstructive and conciliatory work of which he is the true and only author. The work of pacification accomplished by General Diaz has consisted in the strengthening of the central power, and the discreet use of his personal prestige and influence for the purpose of securing in all the states of the Mexican Union the election of governors attached to him personally, and resolved to second him at any cost in the task of assuring to the country the supreme benefit of peace, as the most imperious necessity of the Mexican people. The patriotic conviction of the urgency, for a nation bleeding and weakened as ours has been, of a convalescent political regime to enable us to recuperate our shattered strength, has facilitated the insensible and voluntary creation of a system of governmental discipline wherein the federated units, like the wheels of an immense machine, receive without shock the impulse of force which is conveyed to them from the great central motor."

Even the Encyclopedia Britannica pays its tribute of respect to Diaz, when it says:

"His term of office marks a prominent change in the history of Mexico; from that date he at once forged ahead with financial and political reform, the scrupulous settlement of all national debts, the welding together of the peoples and tribes (there are 150 different Indian tribes) of his country, the establishment of railroads and telegraphs, and all this in a land which had been upheaved for a century with revolutions and bloodshed, and which had fifty-two dictators, presidents, and rulers in fifty-nine years."

CHAPTER XII

GOVERNMENT AND CONSTITUTION

The government of the Republic of Mexico is representative, democratic and federal. The seat of the supreme power of the federation is the capital of the republic, which is also the capital of the federal district. The supreme federal power is divided into three branches, legislative, executive and judicial.

The legislative power is lodged in the general congress, which is divided into two bodies, the senate and the chamber of deputies. The members of the chamber of deputies are elected by popular vote of the Mexican citizen every two years, one deputy for each 40,000 inhabitants. The senate is composed of two senators from each state and the federal district. Senators are elected indirectly, half of the body being renewed every two years. The salary of deputies and senators is $3,000 a year. Congress has two regular sessions every year, the first commencing on the 16th of September (the national holiday) and ending on the 15th of December. It may be extended thirty days longer. The business of this session is the general regulation and conduct of the federal government. The second session begins April 1 and ends May 31, but may be prolonged fifteen days. Its business primarily is auditing the accounts of the previous fiscal year and making appropriations for the fiscal year to come.

The executive power is vested in the " President of the United Mexican States." He is elected by electors chosen by popular vote every four years. He is inaugurated and enters upon his administration on the

1st of December. In the discharge of his high duties the president is assisted by seven secretaries or ministers, whom he may appoint and remove at will. The secretaries are: Of foreign affairs, of home affairs, of justice and public instruction, of colonization, industry and commerce, of the treasury and public credit, of war and the navy, and of communication and public works. All of these secretaries authenticate with their signatures the regulations, proclamations, and decrees of the president, and have charge of the several departments of the government designated by their respective titles. The salary of the president is $30,000 a year and of the secretaries $8,000.

The judicial power is lodged in the supreme court of justice and in the district and circuit courts. The supreme court consists of one chief justice, eleven associate justices, four alternate justices, an attorney-general, and a public prosecutor. These several officers are chosen by indirect popular vote and their term of office is six years. Formerly in the event of a vacancy occurring in the presidency by reason of death or cause other than limitation, the duties of the president devolved upon the chief justice. By amendment to the constitution, Congress, on October 3, 1882, vested the presidential succession in the president and vice-president of the senate and the chairman of the standing committee of Congress successively. The same amendment prescribes that these functionaries must be native-born citizens of Mexico.

The jurisdiction of the federal courts extends to all cases arising (1) from laws or acts of any authority infringing on individual rights; (2) from laws or acts of the federal authority violating or limiting the sovereignty of the states, and (3) from laws or acts, the latter eignty of the states, and (3) from laws or acts of the latter made from the district courts to the supreme court of justice.

The political organization of the states is similar to that of the general government.

REVENUES

The federal government is sustained by import duties, the stamp tax, internal revenue taxes, and by the "federal contribution," which is an additional duty levied on all taxes collected by the states. There are other sources of revenue, such as export duties, mint duties, and the taxes on nationalized property.

The governments of the states were sustained by excise duties levied on all foreign and domestic merchandise, and by certain direct taxes, but the system of state taxation has recently been reorganized, so as to abolish the taxation of imported merchandise.

The city governments are sustained by direct taxes, and in some cases they receive besides a percentage of the duties collected by the state.

THE CONSTITUTION

The present constitution of Mexico was adopted February 5, 1857. By virtue of this instrument the Republic is formed of states, free and sovereign, so far as regards their internal affairs, united under a federal government. The population necessary to entitle a territory to statehood is 120,000 inhabitants at least. The national power resides primarily and exclusively in the people, from whom all public authority emanates and by whom it is exercised through the channels of the state and national governments, with the reservation, so far as state authority is concerned, that state laws shall not conflict with those of the nation.

All persons born on the soil are free, and slaves become free by entering the Republic. Freedom of education, freedom to exercise the liberal professions, freedom of thought and the inviolable freedom of the press are guaranteed — this last with the restriction that private rights and the public peace shall not be violated.

No person can be obliged to work against his will or without proper compensation.

The rights of petition and lawful association are recognized.

The right to carry arms for lawful self-protection and defense, and to freely enter, and leave, and travel over the Republic without passport is guaranteed.

Titles of nobility, hereditary honors, and prerogatives are not recognized, neither are the judgments of privileged tribunals.

Ex post facto laws and the concluding of treaties for the extradition of political offenders and the search without warrant of the competent authority are all prohibited.

Imprisonment for debt of a purely civil nature is abolished.

Arrest is prohibited except for offenses meriting corporal punishment, as is also detention without trial for a longer period than three days. The rights of accused persons are guaranteed. The application of penalties, other than those purely correctional is limited exclusively to judicial authority. Whipping, branding, mutilation, torture, or other infamous punishment is prohibited. The death penalty is limited to high treason, highway robbery, arson, paricide, and willful murder.

In criminal actions three appeals only are permitted. A second trial after acquittal on the same charge is prohibited.

The inviolability of private correspondence as well as the right of private property is recognized. In case of condemnation of private property for public uses previous indemnity under prescribed forms is guaranteed.

The quartering of soldiers in time of peace upon the property of individuals is forbidden, as it is in time of war, save under the regulations established by law.

Civil and ecclesiastical corporations are not permitted to acquire landed estates.

Monopolies are prohibited save the government monopolies of coinage and the postal service, and the limited monopoly enjoyed by patentees of useful inventions.

The president, with the concurrence of his cabinet and the approval of congress, or, during its recess, the congressional standing committee, may suspend all constitutional guarantees in case of invasion, grave internal disorder, or serious disturbance endangering the state.

All children born in the country or abroad of Mexican parents, foreigners naturalized under the laws of the federation, and foreigners acquiring real estate in the Republic, or begetting children by Mexican mothers, are regarded as Mexican citizens unless a distinct claim of citizenship elsewhere is avowed in due legal form. As such they are liable to military service and taxation and are guaranteed all the rights and privileges enjoyed by Mexican citizens. All persons within the Republic, citizens or foreigners, are guaranteed the protection afforded by the constitution and the laws.

Article 33 of the constitution treats of foreigners, and contains among its provisions one empowering the president to expel any "pernicious foreigner."

The congressional committee referred to in the constitution is composed of twenty-nine members, fifteen deputies and fourteen senators, appointed by their respective chambers on the eve of closing their session.

The amendments to the constitution adopted September 25, 1873, establish the independence of church and state; deprive congress of the power to make laws which establish or suppress any religion whatever; institute marriage as a civil contract; substitute affirmation for religious oath; prohibit the existence of monastic orders, without regard to domination or object; prohibit the clergy to wear their clerical garb except when performing religious offices, and expressly exclude ecclesiastics from eligibility to the presidency.

CHAPTER XIII

THE CITY OF MEXICO

The City of Mexico derives its name from Mexitli, the great war-god of the Aztecs. Its original name was Tenochtitlan, from "tunal," a cactus on a stone, and had reference to the legend preserved on the banner of Mexico, already related in these pages.

The city is in the midst of a broad plain completely surrounded by high mountains forming the rim of a bowl or basin, from which there is no natural outlet for the streams that rise in the hills, hence the accumulation of waters that may have, at one time, covered the entire face of the plain, and since the establishment of the city great inundations have occurred as in 1552 and again in 1629, flooding the streets and drowning thousands of the inhabitants. To prevent the recurrence of the floods and consequent disaster the dyke of San Lazaro was built in 1552, and a canal, called the Tajo de Nochistongo, was commenced in 1607, but neither served the purpose of the drainage of the valley and the city is subject to the rise of the waters in the very wet seasons, but inundations will be prevented in future by the great tunnel completed in 1896, bored through the hills of the eastern rim of the bowl. The tunnel is connected with the lakes by canals, which makes a perfect drainage of the city and of the valley.

THE FEDERAL DISTRICT

The city is in what is called the Federal District, covering an area of some four hundred and fifty square miles — the government of the district like the District

of Columbia is directed by the national legislature, administered by the ayuntamiento, or city council, the city and district being presided over by a governor appointed by the president of the Republic. The population of the district is in round numbers nearly 700,000, and of the city proper about 470,000.

The great Lake of Texcoco is eastward of the city, Xochimilco and Chalco to the southeast, Zumpango and San Cristobal to the north. It is probable that before the filling up by the building of causeways, and the made-lands from the grading, both for the old city of Tenochtitlan and the newer City of Mexico, these lakes were all one immense body of water, completely surrounding the ancient cities.

The altitude of the City of Mexico, 7,349 feet above the level of the sea at Vera Cruz, only 200 miles away, gives it a most delightful climate and a most even temperature. The average mean range of thermometer from October to April is 56 degrees and from May to September 63 degrees; practically the only difference between summer and winter is that it never rains in the winter and it does almost every day in the summer — but only in showers, and never with long periods of rainy weather — and the only cold weather results from a norther that blows up from the Gulf and lasts not more than a few hours or a day. With the clean, well-kept streets and delightful climate, the Mexican capital is a most delightful city, whether the sojourn be in the winter or summer months.

THE NATIONAL PALACE

Mexico City abounds in public buildings of great historic interest and of architectural beauty. Foremost among these is the National Palace, or Palacio Nacional, on the east side of the Plaza Mayor.

This historic building is the capitol of the Republic of Mexico, as it was the vice-regal palace when the country was a province of Spain, and before that period was

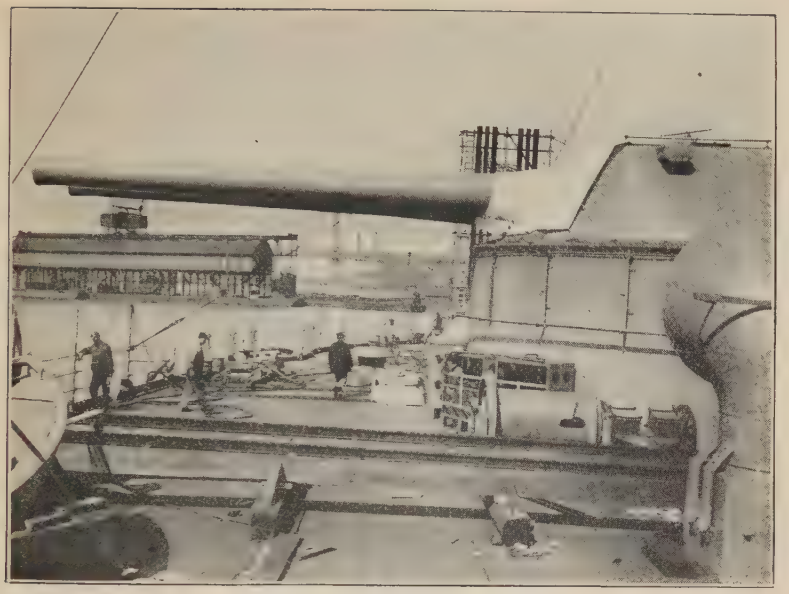
the site of a palace of Cortez, and the property of the Conqueror; the land fell to his share when the city lots of Tenochtitlan were divided among the Spaniards. At that time the site was occupied by what was known as "the new palace" of Montezuma, which, being destroyed, Cortez built in its place a house flanked with towers. The estate was confirmed by the king of Spain to Cortez in 1529 and remained in the possession of his heirs till 1562, when it was bought by the crown for the residence of the viceroy, and remained as the vice-regal residence until 1692, when the house was destroyed in the riots of that year.

REBUILT IN 1692

The present building was begun in 1692 and from time to time has been added to until it extends over the entire east side of the Plaza Mayor, having a frontage of 675 feet, extending down the side streets proportionately, the whole surrounding an immense patio or court, with accommodations for the various departments of the federal government, the executive offices, Senate chamber, treasury, and barrack room for several regiments.

The presidential apartments are in accord with the high office and the dignity of the government, magnificently appointed and splendidly decorated. It is not the presidential residence, only the offices of the president and of the government.

The most noted room is the Hall of the Ambassadors, an apartment of regal dimensions and adornment. It extends its elegant proportions along the palace front, the immense windows looking out upon the Plaza. The walls are hung with portraits of the illustrious men of the country's history, including the martyrs of the War of Independence, Hidalgo, Allende, Morelos, Matamoros and others; Iturbide, and Presidents Arista, Juarez and Porfirio Diaz; there is also a fine portrait of George Washington.



The largest guns of the largest battleship afloat — the "New York"

Sailors and marines line up on a fourteen-inch gun

Major-General W.W.Wotherspoon, Chief of Staff, U. S. A.

Rear Admiral Bradley Allen Fiske, U. S. N.

Twentieth U. S. Infantry on the march

Fifteenth U. S. Cavalry patroling the Rio Grande

Submarines at the Charleston Navy Yard

Huerta gives land to obtain recruits—the lots are at the bottom of a lake

MEXICO'S LIBERTY BELL

On the 16th of September, 1896, there was placed over the main gateway of the National Palace the bell from the tower of the church of Dolores, in the State of Guanajuato, rung by Hidalgo incidentally to call the people to mass, but in reality to call them to arms for the cause of independence; hence, it became the Liberty Bell of Mexico.

In the old tower of the little church at Dolores, over a hundred years ago on that September night when the stars shone bright, rang out the clear tones of a bell. The people listened and wondered at its ringing at such an hour, but well knew that it rang not except upon the order of the faithful padre, the good Father Hidalgo, and came from their homes quickly to answer the summons and hear what he might say. Assembled there under the dim light of the flickering candles of the altar, the patriot priest told his people that the hour of independence was at hand and that they should follow him and march then to do battle for their country and against the Spanish king. With the banner of Guadalupe taken from the little church of Atotonilco as their standard, the people followed Hidalgo, they knew not where, they only followed Hidalgo, and thus was born the Bell of Liberty in Mexico.

Long ago the banner of Guadalupe of Atatonilco was placed in the National Museum of the capital of the Republic, but the Liberty Bell of Mexico was but recently placed above the gates of the National Palace, and on the night of the 16th of September, 1896, rang out again as it did in that night of 1810 for liberty and independence.

It is in history that the hour when this bell first rang, except for mass or matin, was at eleven o'clock, and forty minutes of the night between the 15th and 16th of September, 1810, then Hidalgo rang it in the call to arms and liberty, and when the people answering, assembled

under the darkening shadows of its tower he pronounced the Grito of Mexican independence.

It has long been the custom of the president of Mexico to go upon the balcony over the main gateway of the National Palace at the same hour and there pronounce again the Grito as Hidalgo said, and now he may ring the bell that Hidalgo rang and all the people shout their *vivas* now, as did the little band of patriots in 1810.

The bell had remained in the towers of the church at Dolores since Hidalgo rang it on that eventful night, says Mr. Reau Campbell in his well-known work on Mexico, but on Independence Day of 1896 it was brought to the capital, and on the 16th of September, with all the pomp and circumstance of state, was carried in grand procession and placed over the palace gate. The triumphal car bearing the bell, the central figure of a glittering pageant, rolled on golden wheels, whose spokes were trimmed with flowers. An eagle with outspread wings on the front of the car seemed to fly before the precious relic as if to lead the way. In the shadow of the eagle's wings rested an old brass cannon, cast by Hidalgo. The bell and the cannon were surrounded by trophies of the War of Independence, muskets, swords, cannon, sponges, picks and pikes; the entire group surmounted with a wreath of laurel and oak, ending in a background of tropic trees, entwined with the colors of Mexico.

The car was drawn by six magnificent horses, mounted by postilions and guarded by an escort of rurales; the grand procession following was composed of the dignitaries of state, civic and military, the army and the people. The lookers-on in Mexico were massed to the walls on the sidewalks, every window and balcony was filled and so were the housetops, from whence came showers of flowers and serpentines in green, white and red, and the vivas drowned the music of the band, as the people cheered the bell on its progress to the home of the nation.

When the car arrived on the Plaza in front of the Palace, the bell was removed and hoisted over the central gate, in the facade of the Palace, and as it reached its final resting-place a thousand doves with tricolor bands about their necks rose up from the archway, circled around and flew away to the four quarters, carrying the glad news.

The president and his cabinet watched the hoisting of the bell from a pavilion, and when the work was completed it was formally received from the commission that had brought it from Dolores Hidalgo. The patriotic speeches of presentation and reception were received with wild applause and the ceremony continued till the evening.

All day long the crowds had not left the Plaza, only thinned out a little now and then, and when night came it was packed again until the hour of eleven drew on and there was a solid mass of humanity within the walls of the great square.

At 11:35 o'clock President Diaz came from the Hall of the Ambassadors to the balcony where, till now, he had only pronounced the Grito, took the rope in his hand, a silence fell on the multitude till the hands of the clock crawled to forty minutes past, and he gave the bell four lusty strokes, and a mighty shout went up and re-echoed to the surrounding hills; then rang all the bells in every tower. A star of electric fire surrounded the bell and cascades of colored fires poured down from the cathedral towers and the Palace walls, bands played and people shouted, and almost wept from patriotic joy. The indescribable scene may not be written in the words of any language. Great was the boon of him who saw the dedication of Mexico's Liberty Bell.

MANY MAGNIFICENT CHURCHES

"It was a marvelous time of original and beautiful work that covered Mexico with churches, and set up in

all the remote and almost inaccessible villages towers and domes that match the best work in Italy, and recall the triumphs of Moorish art," writes that ardent student of Mexico, Mr. Charles Dudley Warner. "The beauty and originality is wholly in the exterior. While nearly all the towers, domes, facades, and outside walls are original in form and color and decorations and have a special charm, the interiors are strikingly alike and generally commonplace. This uniformity is the more remarkable in a people that build their interior domestic courts and decorate them with so much variety. It should be said, however, that some of the interiors of the churches were very rich in silver and gold decorations prior to the sequestration of church property.

"Except in the general form of these churches, there is nowhere any repetition of design. The artists seemed to have had free play to express their love of beauty in towers, domes and facades. Nothing is commonplace; nothing is vulgar. Towers and domes, any one of which I should like to see in the United States, are common in the Republic; but it seemed to me that in this part of Mexico they expressed a feeling not common elsewhere — not Italian (which one encounters in so many lovely cloisters and towers), nor yet exactly Spanish, but rather, I should say, Saracenic. At least this was the impression strongly made upon me. The domes always reminded me of the tombs of sheiks, of the califs, and so on, as one sees them in all Moslem lands, and the slender towers recalled the graceful minarets. These two forms in combination, so constant and so varied, suggested always the Saracenic spirit in the artist.

"It may be only a fancy, but it is not unreasonable to believe that the Spanish architect who designed them was strongly influenced in his work by the Saracenic forms with which he was so familiar three centuries ago. There is another fancy about the facades of many of the best old Mexican churches which I may have mentioned

before. It is a peculiarity which one sees in many village churches, and even in the City of Mexico, and in such suburban towns as Coyoacan and Tacubaya.

"While the churches were evidently designed by Spanish architects, the workers who executed the facades were evidently Indians; and in the strange stone-work designs, unlike any other architectural decoration that I know, and very difficult for us to interpret or enter into the spirit of — we have the Indian traditions of a prehistoric art and ornamentation. Much of this work, untranslatable into our terms, has more in common with the carving on the prehistoric temples than with that on any Christian edifices. The subject is one, however, that a layman is incompetent to deal with. It is much to be desired that trained artists should study and describe the old churches of Mexico. Many of them, like the noble edifice of Churubusco, with its interior wealth of old Spanish tiles, are already going to ruin.

NO TWO TOWERS ALIKE

"The fascination in pursuing the study of the towers and domes is that there are no two alike. There was no slavish copying from book designs. The style is the same, but each architect followed his own genius in constructing an object of beauty. The edifices are not always simple; the roof masses are bold and grand, often; and there is an effect of solidity, of grandeur, with all the airy grace of form, and the satisfaction of the eye with color.

"There is a touch of decay nearly everywhere, a crumbling and a defacement of colors, which add somewhat of pathos to the old structures; but in nearly every one there is some unexpected fancy — a belfry oddly placed, a figure that surprises with its quaintness or its position, or a rich bit of deep stone carving, and in the humblest and plainest facade there is a note of individual yielding to a whim of expression that is very fascinating. The

architects escaped from the commonplace and the conventional; they understood proportion without regularity, and the result is not, perhaps, explainable to those who are only accustomed to our church architecture. But most of ours, good as it occasionally may be, is uninteresting; whereas you love this, in all its shabbiness of age, and do not care to give a reason why."

THE GREAT CATHEDRAL

On the very foundations of the greatest pagan temple of the continent is erected the most ambitious house of the Christian Church in the western world — the Cathedral. The Holy Metropolitan Church of Mexico is built on the site of the great teocali of the Aztecs.

The bishopric of Mexico was established in 1527 by Pope Clement VII., and on the 12th of December of that year Fray Juan de Zumarraga, at the instance of Charles V. of Spain, was made bishop, but it was not until a year later that he arrived in the City of Mexico, and on the 2d of September, 1530, was confirmed as bishop-elect and protector of the Indians.

The archbishopric of Mexico was created by Pope Paul II. on the 31st of January, 1545, with Bishop Zumarraga as archbishop.

When the Aztec temples that were in the center of the city of Tenochtitlan were destroyed by the Spaniards in 1521, the space was set apart for the building of a Christian church, as before the walls of the teocali were razed to the ground the sign of the cross and the image of the Virgin were shown above the pagan altars, and at the throwing down of the heathen gods and idols, as a consecration of the ground, and when the ruins had been cleared away, the first church in the City of Mexico, the little church of the Asuncion de Maria Santisima, was built where the temple stood.

This church, finished about three years after the conquest, was replaced soon after by the first cathedral, and

was preserved until the larger one could be built. It stood in the open court in front of the present cathedral, the first stone of which was laid just beyond the north wall in 1573.

BEGUN IN 1573

The corner-stone of the present cathedral was laid in 1573; the foundations were completed in 1615, and the walls were well under way; the roof over the sacristy was finished in 1623, the first service held in 1626. The great inundation of 1629-35 greatly hindered the work, so that the dedication did not take place till 1656, February 2, and even then the building was still incomplete, and it was not until eleven years later, on the 2nd of February, 1667, that the final dedication occurred.

The towers were completed in 1791, and the bells placed in position in 1792. The cost of the towers was nearly $200,000, and the great bell called Santa Maria de Guadalupe, twenty feet from the top fastenings to the tongue, cost $10,000. The larger bell, in the other tower, called Dona Maria, cost nearly as much.

The estimated cost of the Cathedral, from the laying of the corner-stone to the hanging of the bells, is put at $2,000,000 — but that does not represent a tithe of the actual cost if the labor had a fair value put upon it, and the material had been bought at market prices. From north to south the building is over 400 feet in length, the interior measuring 387 feet. From west to east the interior width is 177 feet, the height from roof to the tiles of the floor is 179 feet. The towers are 203 feet 6 inches high.

The material of the walls and towers is stone, the roof is in arches of brick and cement. The front is to the south, the facade richly carved and with friezes, statues, etc., in white marble between the two great towers, with their bell-shaped caps and crosses in stone, make it one of the handsomest in the world. On the cornices are

statues of saints and great men of the church and religious orders. In the center of the facade is the clock, and below it the arms of the Republic. Surmounting the whole is the magnificent dome and lantern of graceful proportions, by the architect Tolsa. The entire Cathedral was from the architectural plans of Alonzo Perez Castaneda.

AN IMMENSE EDIFICE

The immensity of the great church is apparent immediately upon entrance. It is Gothic and Doric, with a cold simplicity. Twenty massive fluted columns of stone separate the nave from the aisles and support the vaulted roof, that under the lofty dome is shaped in the form of a Latin cross. The dome is handsomely painted in pictures of sacred history, among which is the Assumption of the Virgin. There are fourteen chapels in the Cathedral, seven in each aisle, dedicated to the various saints, each decorated in its own particular style with pictures of scenes from the lives of the respective saints. These chapels were formerly inclosed with handsomely carved wood railings. Now they are behind iron gratings, where there are constantly burning candles and tapers in front of the images of the saints. The most noted of the chapels is that of San Felipe de Jesus, where are preserved some relics of this saint, and in front of which is the font in which he was baptized. In this chapel rest the remains of the first emperor of Mexico, Augustin Iturbide, beneath a monument erected to the honored memory of "The Liberator."

Another chapel is that of Las Reliquias, containing pictures by Herrera of the holy martyrs. In another, that of San Pedro, lies buried the first bishop and archbishop of Mexico, Juan de Zumarraga, and also the remains of Gregorio Lopez, the Mexican Man with an Iron Mask, supposed to have been a son of Philip the Second of Spain.

The choir is enclosed within a high railing of richly carved woods, and in the center of this enclosed space is a large octagonal stand of highly polished dark wood for the music books, that have their notes so large that they can be read from the seats around the railing. Two immense organs, also in carved wood, rise almost to the arches of the roof. From the choir, leading up the nave, is a passageway to an altar, inclosed between railings of tumbago, a metal composed of gold, silver and copper. In the rear of the choir is the Altar of Pardon (del Perdon), where at any time may be seen the devotees kneeling in crowds about the base of the altar. Here are two fine paintings, one by the great woman artist, La Sumaya, a San Sabastian, and a Candalaria, by Echave.

The main altar, erected in 1850, was designed by Lorenzo Hidalgo, and cost a fortune in its ornamentations, gilding and carving. The fine Altar of the Kings (de los Reyes) is the most imposing in the building, of magnificent proportions. Its top reaches to the arches of the roof. The altar was by the artist who made the Altar de Los Reyes in the Cathedral of Seville in Spain. The rich carvings and gildings are the especial admiration of the Indians. A noted Mexican artist, Don Juan Rodriguez Juarez, greatly added to the beauty of the altar by his images and pictures, among which are the Assumption and the Epiphany. Beneath the Altar of the Kings are buried the heads of the patriots Hidalgo, Allende, Aldama and Jimenez, brought from Guanajuato in great state and pomp after independence was secured.

In the sacristy are some magnificent pictures that completely cover its walls: The Entry into Jerusalem, the Catholic Church and the Assumption, by Juan Correa; the Triumph of the Sacrament, Immaculate Conception, and the Glory of St. Michael, by Villalpando. In the Meeting Room is a Last Supper and Triumph of Faith by Alcibar, and a collection of portraits of all the arch-

bishops of Mexico by various artists. In the Chapter Room is a fine Murillo, the Virgin of Bethlehem, a Virgin by Cortona, and another by an unknown artist representing John of Austria imploring the Virgin at the battle of Lepanto.—Campbell's Guide to Mexico.

In all this great Cathedral and its adjunct churches and chapels are concentrated the pomp and circumstance of the church of Rome, that for centuries was the power of the land, and within the walls was made much of the country's history.

CHURCH OF SAN FRANCISCO

The churches of Mexico City are so numerous that it is impossible to describe more than one or two of them here, though they are all interesting. But the old Church of San Francisco deserves more than passing notice.

The original church and monastery was the greatest in all Mexico, and its name is closely identified with the great events of the country's history, from Cortez to Comonfort and Juarez. Established by the Twelve Apostles of Mexico and Fray Pedro de Gante, who came to Mexico City three years after its occupation by Cortez, the first church was built in the grounds that had been the wild beast garden of Montezuma. The building material was taken from the great teocali, or temple of the Aztecs, in what is now the Plaza Mayor, Cortez contributing the building fund. The grounds covered three great squares in the very center of the city, bounded on the north by First San Francisco Street, on the south by the Calle de Zuleta, on the east by Calles Coliseo, and Colegio de las Ninas, and on the west by San Juan de Letran, an estate that would now be worth more than ten millions of dollars for the ground alone, which is now occupied by the Hotels Iturbide, San Carlos and Jardin, and the adjoining stores and residences, an estate worth some more millions.

The history of this great house of Franciscans from

the zenith of its power to its downfall would fill volumes with its incidents. Cortez heard masses from its altars, and within its walls his bones were entombed. In this church the viceroys attended mass and lent their presence at the great festivals. Here was sung the first Te Deum of Mexican Independence, General Augustin Iturbide being in the assemblage, and here he, too, was buried.

" The church flourished," says Reau Campbell, " the brothers went about doing good, and they prospered until the evil day came when they thought to put the state under the rule of the church. A conspiracy tending to the overthrow of government was discovered and it was reported to President Comonfort the 14th of September, 1856, that the Franciscans were at the head of a revolt and that the blow was to be struck on the 15th, Independence Day. The president, acting with his accustomed promptness, sent his troops to the monastery early on the morning of the 15th, arrested the entire community of monks, and took possession of church, monastery and grounds. On the 16th a decree was announced opening a new street called Independencia that cut the grounds from east to west. Two days later another decree cited the treason of the Franciscans and suppressed the monastery.

" The decree of suppression was rescinded in the following February, and, although shorn of its greatness and some of its real estate, the monastery was restored and continued in a feeble way till the entry of the army of Juarez, on the 27th of December, 1860, when the great monastery was closed forever. The ornaments, jewels and paintings were taken to the Academy of Fine Arts, the interior decorations were defaced and the altars removed. In April another street was opened through the property, with the scant satisfaction to the Franciscans that the street was called Gante, in honor of the greatest of their order.

"Soon the construction of dwelling houses began, and stores were built, the monastery became a hotel, and the refectory, where there was room for five hundred brothers to sit together at the table, became a stable — and the church, after an almost royal existence of three hundred and thirty years, became a Protestant Cathedral with scarcely a memory of its Catholic glory."

DEDICATED IN 1716.

The main church of San Francisco, as it existed up to 1860, was dedicated December 8, 1716. It was a magnificent structure, 60 feet wide by 230 feet long, with a dome and lantern over a hundred feet high; the great walls were covered with pictures, and thousands and thousands of dollars were expended in decorations, the silver tabernacle over the altar costing $25,000.

Rather than a church there was a group of seven churches, called by different names, but all were San Franciscan. The only remaining one of the group is that of Nuestra Senora de Aranzazu, and that is now known as San Felipe de Jesus. The entrance is on First San Francisco Street, where a new facade has been built that is joined to the old walls whose corner-stone was laid in 1683, on the 25th of March. Many of the elegant interior decorations remain. In walking around the block bounded by the streets of San Francisco, San Juan de Letran, Independencia and Gante remains of the facades of the old churches may be seen. The Hotel Jardin was the infirmary and lodging house of the monastery. Across the garden is the old refectory, now a livery stable. The Iturbide Hotel is on grounds intended for a convent, and the San Carlos is within the line of the walls of old San Francisco.

In 1869 the great church was sold to the Protestant Church of Jesus in Mexico, but it has since been resold to the Catholic Church. Trinity (Methodist Episcopal) Church was constructed from a portion of the old walls,

and Christ Church, Church of England, occupied another part. Dwellings, stores, shops, hotels, restaurants, are built on the grounds of the ancient church and monastery.

CHURCH OF JESUS NAZARENO

The church now called Jesus Nazareno was founded by Cortez immediately after the permanent occupation of the city; by his will he left ample endowment for its building and support, but it was nearly a hundred years before it reached an era of prosperity, and the church whose building commenced in 1575 was not dedicated till ninety years after, when the name was changed from the original one of Nuestra Senora de la Purisima Concepcion to Jesus Nazareno, from the miraculous image of Jesus of Nazareth that came into its possession through the death of a pious Indian woman to whom it had belonged.

The church has suffered little from modern repairs and renovations. The handsomely carved wooden roof remains, but the doors and other woodwork were renewed in 1835. The old altars and the large tabernacle are still in place.

Another notable image is that of Nuestra Senora de la Bala, that was once the property of a poor Indian of Ixtapalapan, who, the legend says, took his gun with the intent of shooting his wife. The terrified woman fell down before the image and implored the protection of the Virgin — and when the shot was fired it was found that the old man was not a particularly good marksman, and that the ball had lodged in the image, after which husband and wife became reconciled as they perceived that a miracle had been performed. The image was kept in the church of San Lazaro for two hundred years and brought to Jesus Nazareno in 1884.

The bones of Cortez rested in this church for awhile. The Conqueror directed that should he die in Spain his bones should, after ten years, be taken to Mexico and

placed in the Convent of La Concepcion, that it was his intention to build, but which never was built. Cortez died in Castelleja de la Questa, in Spain, December 2d, 1547. The body was deposited in the tomb of the Dukes of Medina Sidonia, and ten years later was taken to Mexico and placed in the Church of San Francisco, in Texcoco, where it remained till 1629. On the 30th of January of that year his grandson, Don Pedro Cortez, died, the last of the male line. It was concluded to remove the remains of the conqueror and bury them with the grandson in the Church of San Francisco, in the City of Mexico, which was done with great pomp and ceremony, and here his bones reposed for one hundred and sixty-five years.

On the 2d of July, 1734, the bones were removed again and placed in a magnificent marble mausoleum in the Church of Jesus Nazareno, remaining there for nearly thirty years. During the revolutionary times of the war for independence the hatred of the people for the Spaniards threatened even the bones of the great soldiers of the conquest, and on the night of the 15th of September, 1823, they were removed and secreted in another part of the church, and later taken out secretly and sent to Spain, and were finally laid to rest in the tombs of the Dukes of Monteleone in Italy. His bones having crossed the Atlantic twice, were interred six times in as many different places, and finally have rested neither in the land of his birth, nor in the country he conquered.—Campbell.

THE PARKS AND PLAZAS

The Alameda is the fashionable park of the City of Mexico, and is so called from the fact that it was first planted with alamos, or poplars. Every city, town and village has an alameda, but this is *the* alameda of Mexico.

In 1592 a petition was made to the city council to set

apart certain ground for a park of recreation, and the old Indian market, the Tianquis del San Hipolito, located on a part of the present Alameda, was selected, and a little later the Plaza del Quemadero, the place of the stone altar on which the victims of the Inquisition were burned, was added. The Quemadero was removed by order of the Viceroy Marquis de Croix, and the Alameda attained its present size and shape. By his order to remove the Quemadero the viceroy, it is said, incurred the displeasure of the bigots of the church, and this same Quemadero came near being his own funeral pyre.

The Viceroy Revillagigedo, famous for his energetic reforms and municipal improvements, inclosed the Alameda with a high board fence in 1791, which was replaced in 1822 by the stone wall that had done duty on the Plaza Mayor in inclosing the unfortunate statue of Charles IV. A trench was outside the wall of the Alameda, but these were all obliterated in 1885. The Alameda is the resort of the fashionables, and here they congregate Sundays and feast days to enjoy the music of the military bands. The magnificent trees, the flowers and the fountains make the Alameda a most beautiful park.

THE PLAZA MAYOR

The Main Plaza, or Plaza Mayor de la Constitucion, is in the city's center, where stood the great teocali, the temple of the Aztecs, and where stands the Cathedral, and facing it the National Palace. When the Aztec temples were destroyed and the city being built, an open space was left here that soon became a market place and filled with shops and booths. These were destroyed by fire, after the royal order of January 18, 1611, creating the space a public plaza, only to be rebuilt and subsequently destroyed in a riot in 1692, the fire destroying the building of the Ayuntamiento (city council) and injur-

ing the palace, with a loss of valuable records, a portion only being saved through the efforts of Don Carlos de Siguenza y Gongora, the custodian.

Afterward an elegant stone building, called the Parian, was erected by the municipality, and was rented to merchants of a high class, who brought here their wares, and it became the bazaar of fine trade, but the fruit sellers and vegetable venders surrounded it with their huts again and remained for many years.

The coming of the Conde de Revillagigedo, the viceroy, in 1789, marked the beginning of the present plaza. The hucksters and peddlers were driven off to the Volador market, the open ditches were covered into sewers, the panteons removed or obliterated, and in 1830 the foundation was laid in the plaza for the equestrian statue of Charles IV., that was afterward removed and which now stands at the entrance of the Paseo de la Reforma. The Parian was looted during the revolution of 1828, and later, in 1843, the building torn down and the site included in the plaza.

In the center of the plaza is the Garden of the Zocalo, which derives its name from the *zocalo,* or foundation, for a monument that was never built, a monument to Mexican independence. From this the plaza is often called the Zocalo. A music stand is built on the foundation, and a military band plays here evenings and Sundays for the middle and poorer classes.

On two sides of the Plaza Mayor are the portales, an extension of the buildings over the sidewalks that are supported by columns with arches between, under which are some of the finest stores in the city. On the east side the National Palace extends almost its entire length; on the north the great Cathedral, with its towers, flanked on one side by the flower market and on the other by the Plaza del Seminario, which is only a part of the main plaza. Here is a monument to Enrico Martinez, the noted engineer of his day, who was

A sanitary American camp — The Second Division, U. S. A., Camp at Texas City, Tex.

An unsanitary camp of the Villa revolutionists

United States warships at the Charleston Navy Yard

Taking aboard ammunition for the fleet in Boston Harbor

A practice charge of the Sixteenth Infantry at Fort Bliss, Tex.

Sham fight between U. S. infantry and cavalry on the Mexican border

Farewell tango on the "North Dakota" at the Brooklyn Navy Yard

Sweethearts' farewell just before the sailing for Vera Cruz

responsible for the Nochistongo canal, for the drainage of the city. Bronze figures, inlaid in a marble shaft, show standards of measurement and the level of the lakes at different times.

From the Plaza Mayor street cars for all parts of the city and the suburbs start, and here the salutes are fired, and the troops reviewed on national days, the 16th of September, 5th of May, 2d of April and other days of national celebration.

THE PASEO

The Paseo de la Reforma extends for almost three miles from the city to Chapultepec, commencing at the glorieta of the statue of Charles IV., running in a direct line to the gates of the park at the foot of the Hill of the Grasshopper. It is a broad, smooth, and very beautiful boulevard, shaded by splendid trees, as are the wide walk-ways on each side; along the curb and between the promenades, at certain intervals, are erected statues to the illustrious men of Mexico, presented by the various states of the Republic; massive stone seats are along the promenade under the trees. The Paseo widens into circles, here and there, called *glorietas,* in the center of which are splendid statues, one of Columbus and one of Cuautemoc, the Aztec warrior, nephew and successor of Montezuma. Other statues are to be erected in all the six glorietas. In the glorieta at the entrance of the Paseo is the statue of Charles IV. of Spain. The Aztec statues once here have been removed to the Paseo de La Viga.

The Paseo was established during the empire of Maximilian, and became at once the fashionable drive of the Mexican capital, and a more beautiful one does not exist in Europe or America. Here in the late afternoon of every day, greatly increased in brilliancy on Sundays and feast days, is a magnificent display of carriages and equipages of every style, and a more splendid review does not exist anywhere. The fine array passes up one

side and down the other, a cordon of cavalrymen in the center keeping the procession in line, and adding to the brilliancy of the scene. There are other paseos in the city, but the Paseo de la Reforma is *the* paseo.

THE OLD AQUEDUCTS

Aqueducts for the city's water supply began to be built more than two centuries ago, but their usefulness has passed, they have given way to the more prosaic iron pipes, and the ancient waterways have been torn down and the material used for street repairs. There were two aqueducts bringing water to the southern part of the city, one from a spring near the Desierto, about twenty miles distant. This aqueduct formerly came to the center of the city, passing by the west side of the Alameda, where it served as a position of advantage for those wishing to see the burning of the victims of the Inquisition. It now ends in San Cosme. Formerly there were nearly a thousand arches of stone and brick, but the whole work cost less than $200,000. The building covered a period from 1603 to 1620.

The other aqueduct brought the water from the spring in the park at Chapultepec, ending in the beautiful fountain called El Salto del Agua, which is still preserved, and the remaining arches may be seen from the street cars of the Tacubaya line. At certain intervals are some beautiful shrines artistically sculptured. An inscription on the fountain of El Salto del Agua says that this aqueduct was completed March 20, 1779, during the viceroyalty of Bucareli, and that it was built on the line of an ancient aqueduct of the Aztecs, built in the time of the Emperor Chimalpopoca, who obtained the right to take the water of Chapultepec from the king of Atzcapatzalco, to whom the Aztecs owed allegiance until their independence, in the time of Itzcohuatl, in 1422 to 1433.

The more modern iron pipe brings water from the

springs near Guadalupe to the northern portion of the city. The *aguador* still does business, carrying water from the fountains to residences. The water coming from the springs is exceptionally pure, as it comes from the hills, and there is no contamination by contact with sewage.

A WORLD-FAMED STATUE

The statue of Charles IV. of Spain is the most notable of the many in the city of Mexico. It is of heroic dimensions, being the largest single piece of bronze in the world. It is located at the entrance of the Paseo de la Reforma, but was originally in the Plaza Mayor, opposite the National Palace, where, before the casting a wooden model of the statue, gilded, was placed on the pedestal pending the molding of the bronze work. A royal order by the king of Spain was made November 30, 1795, permitting the building of the statue. The cast was made August 4, 1802, at six o'clock in the morning, after two days had been spent in melting the bronze, under the direction of Don Salvador de la Vega, from the model of Don Manuel Tolsa, the work being done under the administration of the Viceroy Branciforte, paid for by the city and private contributions. The statue was not completed until 1803, when it was unveiled with great ceremony on the 9th of December of that year.

The statue remained in the Plaza Mayor until 1822, when the feeling against the Spaniards became so bitter that its destruction was threatened, and a great wooden globe was constructed about it and painted blue to protect it from patriotic missiles thrown by the now independent Mexicans. But the blue globe was not thought to be a complete safeguard, and the statue was removed to the patio of the university, where it remained until 1852, when the animosity against Spain had in a measure subsided, and the great bronze horse with his royal rider was placed in its present position. The height of horse

and rider is fifteen feet nine inches, and the statue weighs 60,000 pounds.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

There were in 1908, 353 government schools in the city, including 13 professional and technical schools, and nearly 200 private schools; a geographical society, a geological society, an association of engineers and architects, a society of natural history; also a national library dedicated in 1692, of upwards of 225,000 volumes.

There are over 150 manufacturing establishments, including ironworking shops.

By rail the city is 264 miles northwest of Vera Cruz. It is laid out with almost unbroken regularity. The name of a street changes with almost every block, according to old Spanish custom.

DEATH RATE IMPROVING

Though the climate is so favorable and Mexico City is 7,415 feet above the sea, yet, with a wet, undrained subsoil, and many thousands of Indians and half-breeds living in crowded quarters, the death rate has been notoriously high—46 to 56 per thousand. Of late years, however, drainage works, underground sewers, and sanitation have tended to improve these conditions.

CHAPTER XIV

AROUND THE VALLEY

BEAUTIFUL CHAPULTEPEC

In all the lovely Valley of Anahuac, none of the hills embrace so many beauties as cling to Chapultepec, the beautiful Hill of the Grasshopper, where, the legends say, under the grateful shades of the giant ahuehuetls, was the home of Montezuma and the Aztec *tzins*. When the summer days were long they came from old Tenochtitlan, over the long causeway, the emperor, in palanquin borne, the first in the royal pageant, with the princess attended by plumed and feathered warriors, and sat them down to rest ere they commenced the climb of rugged rocks. Attending slaves rested too their waving fans, when the cooling zephyrs from the trees fell more softly on the monarch's brow, till, less languid now, before the ascent began to be half way done, the Aztec lord one day left his palanquin, when he had bade its carriers put it down, and entered a cavern that is there; and while the *tzins* waited his return they heard his voice from the rocks high above them, and it seemed their king was a very god, since none knew but Montezuma how to pass thus, through the earth from the valley to the hill-top, and all the people shouted in adoration of their " fair god."

PALACE OF MONTEZUMA

It is in the legends that the palace of the Montezumas was on the Hill of the Grasshopper, called Chapultepec, and here the Spanish viceroy, Don Matias de Galvaez, commenced in 1783, and his son Don Bernardo com-

pleted in 1785, the palace that stands there to-day, but since each recurring viceroy, emperor and president has proceeded further with its completion, adding, each one, to its size and cost, until it is now a palace indeed, the home of the president of Mexico and the seat of the National Military Academy.

A SUPERB SITE

The site is a superb one, reached by a winding carriage road on one side and a steep foot-path on another, while the other sides are precipitous, with almost perpendicular cliffs. The carriage road and foot-path from the gates end at the broad esplanade at the top, where the sentinels of the cadet corps are always on guard, and beyond which guard there is no passing, except by permit from the governor of the National Palace. The card of the governor is not taken up by the guard, as it is necessary to present it to the attendant in charge to gain admittance to the palace.

The view from the esplanade is beautiful indeed. Tacubaya, almost hidden by trees, is in the middle distance, and beyond, on the rising hills, other towns and villages; and still beyond the mountains are the great snow-capped peaks of Popocatepetl and Ixtaccihuatl. If you agree that the vista from the esplanade is very beautiful, pass through the garden to the overhanging gallery on the other side, and look out over the broad spreading plain of the valley. To the right is the field of Churubusco, and farther on to the east sheltering mountains. In front, the magnificent city, with its hundreds of towers; the tallest overshadowing all the others, are the Cathedral's. Beyond the city's spreading squares you can see the hill and church of Guadalupe. Following the range of vision round to the left there is the suburb of Tacuba, the hill of Los Remedios; and nearer to where you stand is the battleground of Molino del Rey. The magnificence of the picture baffles all description; it is

wondrous to behold, and the memory of it lives with you always.

Far below your feet the tall cypresslike trees shade the modest monument erected to the memory of the cadets who fell in the defense of the castle from the assaulting Americans in '47. The names on the shaft tell of those whose lives went out in the merciless fire of a superior army. A monument was not needed except in their honor, says Mr. Reau Campbell in his guide, for the memory of these brave boys lives in the hearts of their countrymen. There are fresh beauties in this hanging garden filled with pretty flowers, in the galleries, adorned in Pompeiian color, but these do not detain, — there is too much grandeur in the view, — and you wander again to the terrace and gaze over the valley to the blue rim of the mountains melting into the lighter blue of the sky, and are loth to leave even for the magnificence of the interior of this splendid palace.

The salons and apartments of the Castle of Chapultepec have the appointments of regal magnificence, since they are a heritage from the viceroys of olden times and a latter-day emperor; and the luxurious beauty of the decorations is due to none more than "poor Carlotta," though all that was indicative of the empire has disappeared, and the monogramed "R. M." appears everywhere to remind you that it is the palace of the Republic of Mexico.

MOLINO DEL REY

The field of the battle of September 28, 1847, at Molino del Rey, is near Chapultepec, and may be seen from the palace terrace. The battle of Molino del Rey was declared by General Grant to have been one of the unnecessary battles of an unholy and unjust war.

CHURUBUSCO

One of the engagements during the siege of the Mexican capital by the Americans, was fought August 20,

1847, at Churubusco, under the American Generals Smith, Worth and Twiggs. A gallant defense was made by the commander of the Mexican forces, General Don Pedro Maria Anaya, who, in answer to an inquiry by General Twiggs after the battle as to the whereabouts of the ammunition, gallantly replied: "Had I any ammunition, you would not be here." A monument commemorative of the battle is in the village plaza.

In Aztec times the city of Huitzilopocho, with its temple to the god Huitzilopochtli, stood on the site of the now straggling village of Churubusco. The old city had a bad name as the abode of evil spirits and demons that made night hideous with their howlings, but when the monks built a temple to the true gods the demons of Huitzilopochtli vanished. The Church of Santa Maria de los Angeles, the name also of the primitive church, was completed in 1678, May 2d, under the patronage of Don Diego del Castillo, a silver merchant, and his wife Dona Helena de la Cruz, whose images carved in wood are still preserved in the church. Although almost a ruin, the church is one of the most interesting in Mexico, and there are still remains of its former great beauty. The pretty decorations of tiles are rapidly disappearing, and the richly carved organ is falling into decay. There are several curious pictures, among which is a fine Assumption of the Virgin.

THE ANCIENT CAPITAL

The town of Coyoacan was once the capital of Mexico and is older than the City of Mexico, since Cortez established the seat of government there August 17, 1521, and from Coyoacan laid out the plans and directed the founding of the city, and there were the feasts celebrating the victories of the conquest. On the north side of the plaza stands the house in which the conqueror lived for many days with La Marina, his faithful guide and interpreter. The coat of arms of Cortez is over the doorway. Near

this house is another with a garden, where Cortez also dwelt, and in the garden a well in which he drowned his wife, who lies beneath the cross on the mound in a near-by churchyard. The Church of San Juan Bautista was built in 1583, founded at the same time with the Dominican monastery in 1530 by Fray Domingo de Vetanzos. The stone cross on the mound in the churchyard was placed there by Cortez.

MEXICO'S MONTE CARLO

Tacubaya is the prettiest place in the valley of Mexico, with its beautiful gardens, parks and shaded streets, lovely flowers and luxuriant trees everywhere, so that it is no wonder that here is the place of the summer homes of the wealthiest people in the Mexican capital. The location of the little city, on the slope of the hills back of Chapultepec, is so advantageous that it was contemplated at one time, after the great inundation of the City of Mexico in 1629 and '34, to make this the site of the national capital. At that time Tacubaya was called Atlacoloayan, the "place in the bend of the stream;" but after its settlement by the Spaniards it became known as Tacubaya de los Martires.

The principal church is that of San Diego, but the parish church and the old monastery of the Dominicans are worthy of a visit. The one-time palace of the Archbishop of Mexico was afterwards used as the National Astronomical Observatory. The palace was built in 1737 by the Archbishop and Viceroy Vizarron. Before its removal to Chapultepec the National Military Academy occupied this palace.

The Alameda and the Plaza de Cartagena are pretty places, with trees, flowers and fountains. In the west part of the city are the quaint old mills of Santo Domingo, and near them the Arbol Benito, "the blessed tree." The story goes that a monk passing that way was wearied and so rested was he under the grateful shade that he

blest the tree and bade it be always green. Immediately there came from its roots a spring of cold clear water. That this is true, you may see that the tree is ever green, and the brook goes on forever.

Tacubaya has been called the Monte Carlo of Mexico, and not inaptly so. There was gambling there by gamblers of all sorts, sizes, ages and conditions, on the streets, under the white umbrellas, in booths under the trees, where you may wager a penny or a peso. In the gardens were games that savor of Monte Carlo indeed. There were tables for monte, rouge et noir, or any game you please. The tables were crowded all the time, particularly in the evening; when the stakes were high, as much as twenty and thirty thousand silver dollars were on the tables at one time. There are dozens of rooms in one garden, for games, refreshment, music and dancing, while the gardens are lighted with many colored lights that make the scene one of enchantment. Bull fights and cock fights are the other attractions of this intensely interesting town.

LA VIGA CANAL

The Canal of La Viga is a navigable waterway for traffic between the city and the outlying towns and villages on the shores of Lakes Chalco and Xochimilco, flowing from those lakes to Lake Texcoco, and does not, as is popularly supposed, take in any drainage or sewerage from the city; the water coming from the south to the eastern district of the city passes northeasterly to Lake Texcoco; it is a murky-looking water, but is not nearly so murky as it looks; taken up in the hand or vessel, it is as clear as it comes from the lake. The boats of La Viga are different from the boats of any other canal, and there are different styles of boats on La Viga, ranging from the dug-out canoe of the Chinampas to the flat-bottom freight boat propelled by poles in the hands of strong arms, a sort of Armstrong motor, and side-

wheel steamers of antiquated design. All classes carry passengers, with their donkeys and dogs, these latter being indispensable accompanists to the passenger, since each is an owner of part of the cargo of wood, charcoal or garden truck, and must have the burro to make a delivery at the port of destination, and the dog — well, the dog just goes along from force of habit, or an innate aversion to being left behind, and alone, because the family comes to town with its head and the house is closed till they return. One of these long, low, rakish craft from the other shores of Chalco and Xochimilco is a sight to see, at once a freighter and a floating menagerie, as there are other live stock besides the dogs and donkeys, in the shape of goats, sheep, ducks, and chickens. The boats bring the provender for man and beast in a city of nearly half a million of people, and largely supply the city with fuel, the boats bringing it to the landing places and the burros making the delivery throughout the city.

But there are boats for passengers, and for tourists to Santa Anita, Mexicalcingo, San Juanico, Ixtacalco, and *las chinampas,* the floating gardens. These boats are a Mexican edition of the gondola, and with a Mexican gondolier in the bow, using a pole instead of a paddle. These gondolas are as picturesque in a way as the Venetian sort, not as graceful, perhaps, but *sui generis,* in a class of their own, a wide, flat bottom batteau, like an old-fashioned country ferryboat; there are low seats on each side running lengthwise, from end to end, under a canopy with gaudy-colored curtains.

The start on the voyage does not impress favorably, but as it proceeds it grows interesting, especially after passing the Garita, where the municipal duties were collected from incoming freighters; thence the wide, open canal is alive with queer little craft, the long, narrow canoes darting here and there among the larger ones, the little pleasure boats with their passengers squatted under

the grass-woven canopies, and the larger boats coming from or going to Xochimilco and Chalco with their cargoes of men, women, children, burros, dogs, wood, charcoal and garden truck; then there are little bumboat canoes with dusky "Little Buttercups" to come alongside your boat, with the cleanest-looking baskets covered with the whitest of drawn-work cloths, under which are the native sandwiches, tortillas, tamales, *con carne* or *con dulce,* that, no matter how they may have seemed elsewhere, here look temptingly toothsome. Any day will do for the voyage to Santa Anita and much will be seen that you never saw before, but on a Sunday or a feast day there will be more life on the canal and in the villages.

VILLAGE OF SANTA ANITA

Santa Anita is a straggling village of thatched houses, a relic of primitive times almost under the shadow of the towers of the metropolitan city, a pleasure resort of the middle and lower classes, where every house is an open one, *fonda,* restaurant or pulque shop, with thatched bowers over the seats and tables of the revellers.

"When your boat is anchored under a great tree at Santa Anita," says Mr. Reau Campbell, "go ashore and pass up the street from the canal to the little old church and beyond to a forlorn little plaza, where there are some swings and some more fondas and pulque shops, and you will find the canoes to take you through the sluices of the floating gardens. These gardens have no walks and must be floated through, which would entitle them to their name, even if they were not really floating gardens, as they were in the olden times when the *chinampas* grew the fruits and flowers for Montezuma and the Aztec tzins; now they are flower and vegetable beds to supply the city markets. It is worth the while of the trip if it were only to see the acres and acres of poppies, whence the natives garland themselves and their

houses on feast days, and of which you may bring away a boat load for a *real.*

" On the going or the return trip a stop should be made at the hacienda of Juan Corona. While he lived, Don Juan's house was yours; his was a hospitable roof, and it remains to-day in happy memory with open doors. Don Juan was a great man in his day, as valiant as he was good and charitable, not a soldier, nor yet padre or a missionary; his life was full of brave deeds and good works. Don Juan was a bull-fighter on Sundays and feast days, and a philanthropist all the week, as if he would make six days of charity balance his account of questionable sport on Sunday. His pleasure was the care of the children of the poor, till he was called the father of the destitute, when he established a school for his wards that is still maintained in one of the rooms of his house. The old Don's hobby was less of tauromachy than the collection of curios, and his house is a monument to the memory of that hobby; every room is a museum in itself. Pass through the open door; no invitation is needed, and there is none to stop your way. Within the patio of trees, flowers and climbing vines is a stone stairway leading to an upper gallery; the curios commence on the stairway and continue through all the house. Pass around the gallery to the far side of the patio and enter through the kitchen, the quaintest, cleanest kitchen in the world; then through the dining-room, bed chamber and parlor, coming out again onto the gallery at the stairs, where you may enter the schoolroom and see a school wholly unlike any other. As a visitor enters, the bright little beneficiaries of Corona's bounty rise in respectful salutation and welcome. The school has not the ample means it had in the life of good old Don Juan, and any offering is not only to a worthy charity, but a tribute to the memory of a good man.

" It will take longer to see all in the quaint old house than to write it down, since it is impossible to do it com-

pletely. In the kitchen is the old-fashioned cooking-place built of brick, around it and on all the walls are the utensils of earthenware, and in the dining-room the table and its appurtenances are as quaintly curious. But it is in the other rooms where are the curios and relics, of every age and era of Mexico's history back to prehistoric times; idols from the Pyramids of the Sun and Moon at San Juan Teotihuacan; weapons, plumes, shields and war dresses of the Aztecs, a cigar case, pistol and sword of the patriot-priest Hidalgo; the bed in which General Santa Anna died; some pieces from the table service of the Emperor Maximilian and one of the muskets with which he was shot; the rifle of General Miramon used at Queretaro; a fine collection of *chicaras,* chocolate cups painted by the Indians of Michoacan; very curious and ancient costumes of the bull-ring, among which is one used by the Spanish matador, Bernardo Gavino, when he was killed in the ring at Texcoco; ancient Chinese and Japanese armor; paintings of religious subjects and scenes from the bull ring; portraits of Don Juan and his wife and of Mexican celebrities; a collection of bird eggs, stuffed animals, two immense bowls or platters with the portraits of Maximilian and Carlotta; old tapestries and silken shawls; rugs of the skins of wild beasts, and a thousand and one other curious things collected in a long lifetime, of which no complete list or description may be made, but each article is in its place just as Don Juan left them when he died."

CHAPTER XV

A MEXICAN BULLFIGHT

Bullfighting is still by far the most popular amusement of Mexico. The spirit of tauromachy inherited from old Spain lives in the modern bull ring or Plaza de Toros, according to Mr. Reau Campbell, the noted traveler, whose graphic description of the methods of the " cruel sport " is reproduced below.

An honest effort has been made by the government to stop the sport by the enactment of laws interdicting the functions in the federal district and other metropolitan localities, but the laws were repealed as often as enacted, so great was the pressure of popular demand from the masses, and notwithstanding the influence and example of non-attendance of the best people, the Plaza de Toros is easily the most liberally patronized amusement in Mexico.

" The better the day the better the deed " may not be a Mexican maxim, but the better days are given over to the bull fight. Sundays and feast days are chosen, and on no other day are the plazas open.

The *Plaza de Toros* is the bull ring — a great circular building of stone or wood with an interior that is an immense amphitheater seating thousands of people. The seats are in tiers rising to the top where the private boxes are, and as there is no roof except over the outer circle shading the boxes, there is a shady side called " *sombra* " and a sunny side, " *sol,*" with prices in accordance with the location, from 25 to 50 cents in the sun and $1 to $3 in the shade, the private boxes with

eight to ten chairs cost from $12 to $20, according to the reputation of the company giving the performance, as they vary greatly as the stars and support in a theatrical troupe, and what may be the price when only local talent is on the bills will be largely increased when a star matador and his company are underlined. Tickets may be bought at the gates, but it is always best to buy them in advance, usually at some cigar store frequented by the toreadores or at the city offices of the bull ring, the locations of which are announced in the advertisements.

FORM OF THE RING

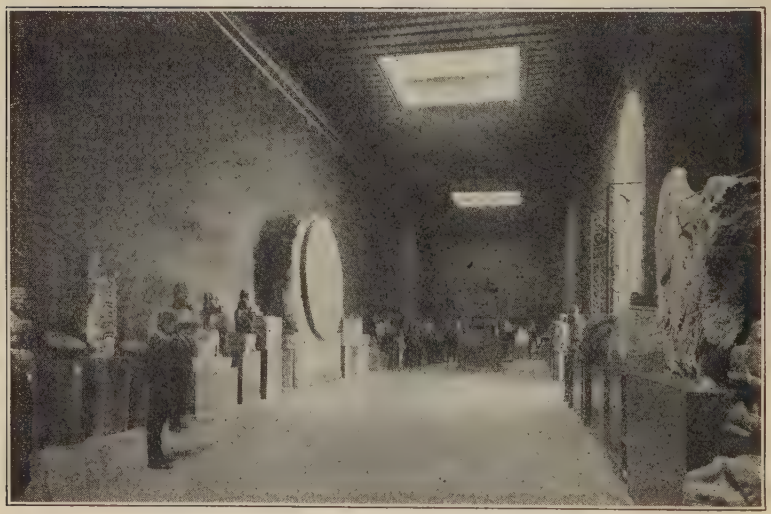
The ring itself is an arena about a hundred feet in diameter encircled by a strong board fence about five feet high with a foot rail on the inside two feet from the ground. This is to assist a *torero* too closely pursued by the bull to escape by a leap over the fence to the passageway that extends around the ring between the fence and the seats. But it is not always an escape, since the bull often leaps the barrier in pursuit of his tormentor or to get away from him, and at intervals in the passageway short barriers are placed just far enough from the wall to admit the body of the man and not wide enough for the bull's horns. There are gates that open into the ring and at the same time close the passage and thus the bull is forced to return to the ring.

There is a " president " to preside at each *corrida* or performance, to direct the details and to decide all differences of opinion between the people and the performers. There are always questions to be decided, and the president, usually a state or municipal officer, must be a man of executive ability and well posted in tauromachy. His seat is in a gorgeously decorated box near the center of the shady side, and when he enters, with a staff of high-up, well-known lovers of the sport, it is the signal for much cheering, especially so if he is a president whose decisions have been favorable to the people.

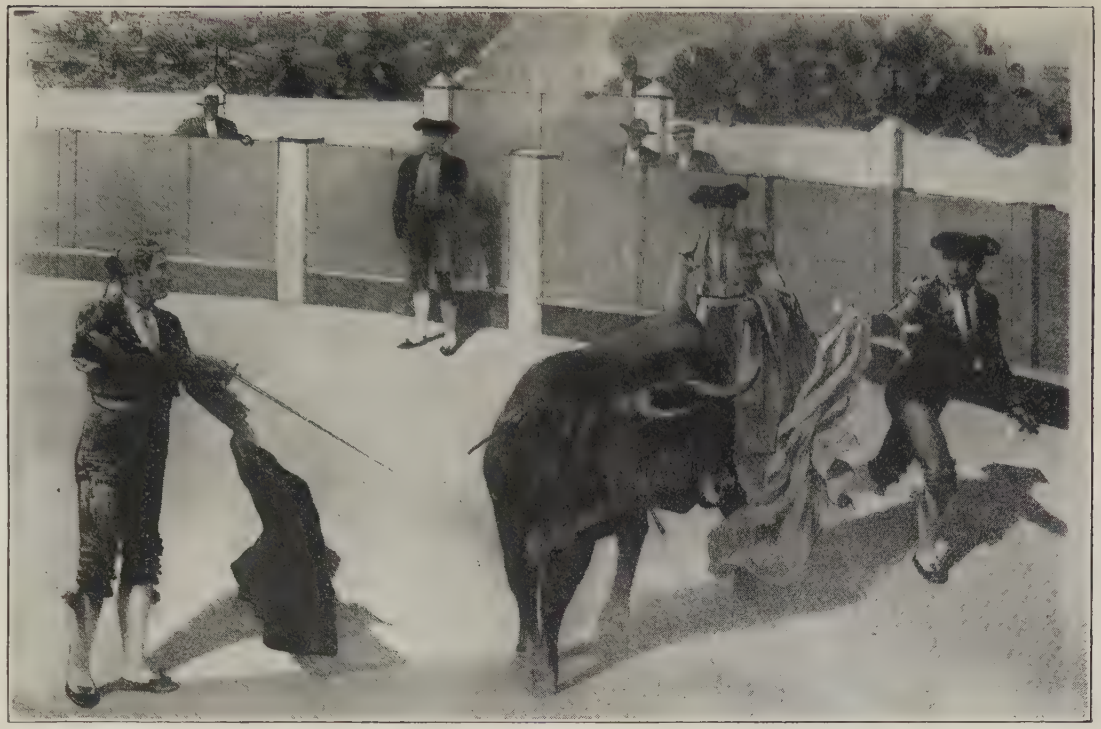
Plaza at Guanajuato, with La France Hotel in background

Flower Market in the Plaza Mayor, Mexico City

Hall of the Petrified Mummies in the Catacombs, Guanajuato



A hall in the National Museum, City of Mexico



"The Matador"—from a celebrated painting of the Mexican National Sport

Play of the Capes—Typical scenes in the Plaza de Toros, City of Mexico

Enraging the Bull

DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT

The president has the general direction of the *corrida,* when he is ready the company must be, and when he has given his permission for the bulls to be killed then the killing commences. A bugler stands at the president's side to call the signals to remove the horses, or a bull that may prove too tame, to call the *banderilleros* and announce the killing of the bull. Hence it may be seen how easily a president may be popular or unpopular with the masses, as he may or may not give them quite enough of bloody action on the scene. Any deviation from the program must be with the consent and approval of the president, and the performance cannot end until he is satisfied that the advertisement has been carried out.

There is music by one or more brass bands that may be heard by those sitting very near; the shouts and cat-calls of the canaille drown all semblance of music for those on the opposite side of the arena, but the musicians are there and you can see when they are playing. A company of soldiers stationed within call of the president with another company deployed about the arena do police duty, and try to prevent the too enthusiastic members of the audience from taking charge of the whole thing, throwing the seats into the ring, or other mild methods of evincing their disapproval of an act or presidential decision. The soldiers are rarely called into active service; their presence has a wholesome effect, and while the mad enthusiast who would like to see a horse gored just once more, and gets madder because the president says there has been enough of it, feels like fighting the whole company, he is usually pacified by a gentle touch on the shoulder by the gendarme and growlingly subsides.

BRILLIANT AND THRILLING SCENE

The scene is a brilliant one and the tension of nerves is great in anticipation of what is to come; the feeling

is one of amazement and anxious expectation. The bands are playing, or seem to be, and the thousands of impatient spectators are shouting, whistling and yelling themselves hoarse. There may be five thousand people, but there is noise enough, and seats too, for twenty thousand, and if there is a star matador they will all be occupied. The president and his companions are in their places, and the applause grows greater as the gates on the other side of the arena open to admit a gaily costumed horseman mounted on a splendid horse; he is the *alguazil;* he rides directly to the front of the president's box and asks permission to kill the bulls.

Permission granted, the president tosses to him the key of the *toril,* which he catches, and gallops back to receive the company. If he catches the key there is applause; if he misses it, a storm of hisses.

The gate opens again and the coming of the gay company is loudly announced with a grand flourish of trumpets. It is a brilliant spectacle, this company of nimble-footed athletes in costumes of silk and satin, gold and velvet, as they march quickly across the arena to make their obeisance to the president and then to the audience.

ORDER OF THE PROCESSION

First in the gay procession come the *matadores or espadas,* the stars of the company, who handle the swords to the death of the bulls; next the *banderilleros,* second only to the matadores in the profession; these gentlemen are they who place the *banderillas* in the bull's shoulders; and then the *capeadores,* third in rank, who hope to be *banderilleros* and some day *matadores,* but now have only to manipulate the capes to distract the bull's attention or place him in proper position for the *banderilla* or the sword. The *picadores* follow on horseback, their long lances in hand. Then four mules, gaily caparisoned, harnessed together and driven to an arrangement of traces

for dragging out dead bulls and horses. Behind these two men with wheelbarrows, shovels, rakes and brooms, for cleaning up the ring, and then the attendants, "*sabios monos,*" the wise monkeys, as they are called from their good suggestion and advice to the performers — *diestros, toreros or toreadores* as the bull-fighters are called.

The *toreador* is recognized on the street by a costume as distinctly his own as the one of silk and satin, gold and velvet that he wears in the ring; it is a short "round-about" jacket with very tight trousers; the hat has a straight stiff brim with a low flat top felt crown; under the rim of the hat is a little queue of plaited hair, called a *coleta;* what this is for does not appear, but if any offense against the ethics of the sport is committed this queue is cut off, so the possession of it may be regarded as a reward of merit, that when a *torero* is retired is cut off with a scissors of gold.

Proceeding to the president's box, and having received his acknowledgments, the company parades around the arena to receive the plaudits of the people.

COMING OF THE BULL

Now all is ready, the beautiful capes of satin and velvet are thrown to admirers in the audience, for it is an honor to hold a toreador's cape; as they are not used in the ring, cheaper and stronger capes of bright-colored oil-cloth are taken instead. Everyone except the toreros have left the ring and for a brief moment there is complete silence. The bugle sounds. All eyes are turned to a low door on the other side that is suddenly thrown open. From a dark stall beyond the bull is coming. As he passes under the rail a barbed steel point covered with flowing ribbons is placed in his shoulder; the colors of these ribbons indicate the ranche or hacienda from whence he came, as the bulls are bred on certain farms for their fighting qualities, and your smallest sport can pick out a good fighter when he sees the ribbons as easily

as a Kentucky boy does the winner in a horse race by the colors of the jockey's jacket.

The bull comes from a dark stall where he has been kept previous to the fight, finding the gates suddenly opened and a possible way of escape, gallops through a scarcely less dark passage that leads him to the open arena and to certain death. Startled by the pricking of the steel dart in his shoulder and maddened by its stinging he bounds forward to the center of the ring, where, with head up and tail lashing the air, he stops a second.

It is a magnificent sight now before the carnage begins. The splendid animal stands and bids defiance as he throws the dust over his back, pawing and shaking his shaggy head with mingled rage, surprise, and fear, perhaps but little of fear, for in a second he has decided upon a plan of attack.

NO ESCAPE FOR THE HORSE

The shouting thousands and the blare of trumpets would frighten a more fearless beast, but if it scares the bull there is no hint of it in his action. A look to right or left and the unequal fight is on. The throwing of a cape in front of him and the thrower is chased to the barrier around the ring and the man is over it none too quickly, as he may believe when he hears the boards cracking behind him as a pair of sharp horns are thrust through them as if they were paper. Foiled here, the bull turns about and finds a horse in his way, a poor broken down horse, with eyes blindfolded that he may not see his danger.

There is no way of escape for the horse; his rider spurs him on, and while the *picador* with his lance may for a moment turn the bull and save the horse, it is but deferring the inevitable for the time. Passing by this horse the bull finds another on the other side; this time the horse does not fare so well; the bull rushes upon him with all his might, the sharp horns sink into his

flesh as needles into a piece of cloth, the horse is lifted bodily into the air and tossed over on the ground with the rider underneath perhaps.

A *capeador* throws a cape over the bull's face, distracts his attention from the fallen *picador* and wounded, or more probably dead horse. The *capeador* deftly leads him to the other horse that just now escaped, but now his time has come; the bull has learned that the horse is defenseless, the pricking of the *picador's* lance is nothing. While it is intended that the bull should be held off and the horse saved it is rarely done, and this one is disemboweled — it may be that if he does not die in his tracks he is ridden on around the ring dragging his intestines under his feet, only to be gored again and again till he is dead, for without the blood of the horses no bull fight is complete. The two horses slain, or so badly disabled that they cannot be ridden, the bugle sounds, and unless the president panders to the clamor of the crowd for more horses the first act with the first bull is over and the *banderilleros* are ready.

AN INTERESTING FEATURE

Now comes the really artistic and interesting feature of the bull fight, the placing of the *banderillas.* The *banderilla* is a dart about two feet long with a sharp barbed point and covered with fancy colored paper or ribbons. The *banderillero,* a man without cape or means of defense, takes two *banderillas,* one in each hand, walks out in front of the bull, holding them up, shaking the ribbons to call the bull towards him, and as he approaches the darts are placed in his shoulders where the barbs cause them to hang as if they were for ornaments instead of goads to further rage and madness. The man is an athlete and a nimble one. It is the rule that the darts must not be thrust except while the bull is in action and on the attack, so it must be done quickly.

It is said that the bull in the moment of attack closes

his eyes, so it is but a quick decision of the instant to thrust the darts, step to one side, and the bull passes by, only to find another *banderillero* on the other side with another pair of *banderillas* for his further decoration. Another rule is that the *banderillas* must not be placed back of the shoulder. If they are properly placed and so firmly that they are not shaken out, loud and long is the applause, otherwise the hisses are shrill and sharp. The *banderillero* is a favorite with the lover of tauromachy as well as with the first-timers at the fight. It seems with his lack of defense, and depending entirely on his agility he is the hero in this contest between human skill and brute force, so that it is often the *matador* comes back from his advanced position as a star, much to the delight of the audience, to try his hand and thrust an extra pair of *banderillas*.

In all well-regulated companies there are two *banderilleros,* each with two pairs of *banderillas,* making eight in all, that, if their work is well done, are hanging from the bull's shoulders, and the president's bugler announces the end of second act and calls the *matador* to kill the bull.

THE STAR PERFORMER

As the star in some great drama is received with plaudits as he enters upon the stage, so is the *matador* with shouts and throwing of hats, that is, if he is indeed a star *matador* known to kill his bulls with a single stroke of the sword. The *matador* takes his sword and muleta, and while the *capeadores* are leading the bull to further weariness on the other side of the ring, advances to the front of the president's box, hat in hand, dedicates the bull to something or somebody, some state or county, some man, or girl, and tells the president that he will kill the bull in the most approved style, then, tossing his cap to an admirer in the shady seats, proceeds to do his part, or after saluting the president, he may cross to the

sunny side, as it is sometimes well to cater to the rabble, and tell the people there that he will kill the bull in their especial style and toss his cap there to be held in great honor while he does it.

DEATH OF THE BULL

Then advancing toward the bull, the *matador* holds in his right hand a long, perfectly straight, sharp-pointed, keen-edged sword; in his left he carries the muleta, the "red rag" of the Spanish bull fight, and used only in the last act, in the killing of the bull. The muleta is a piece of red flannel three or four feet square, held on a stick, near the ground and in front of the bull, kept in a fluttering motion before his eyes, which seems to infuriate further the already enraged animal. He lowers his head and makes a rush for the *muleta,* which is held, although in the left hand, across to the right of the *matador;* this gives him a fair play for the stroke of the sword, and as the bull lowers his head to attack the "red rag" the right hand of the *matador* drives the sword to the hilt into the bull's shoulders, or between them, cutting the spinal cord or piercing the heart, which if it has been well done brings the bull to his knees and he lies down to die, but it may not be death until the "stroke of mercy" has been given by the *cachetero,* an attendant with a short dagger — who comes from behind and gives the bull a quick, sure thrust between the horns to instantaneous death.

DRAGGING OUT THE DEAD

While this is being done the matador is bowing his acknowledgments to an enthusiastic audience, who have gone wild and thrown their hats, canes, coats, cigars and coin into the ring; the hats, canes and coats are thrown back to their owners, but the cigars and coin are kept for future reference. But — if the killing has been bungled and the *espada's* work not well done, then instead of

canes, hats and cigars the disapproving enthusiast pulls up the boards, and with the chairs and anything that is loose or that he can loosen, throws them into the ring. Four mules gaily harnessed are then driven in, a chain fastened about the heels of the dead bull and he is dragged out.

Even before the dead first bull has disappeared and the dead horses dragged out, the two picadores appear on other horses worse than the first, if possible, the bugle sounds again, and another bull bounds into the ring to meet the fate of the first; after the second another and another till five or six are killed, and if you have been there you are to be the judge whether your Sunday afternoon has been well spent.

The upper classes, as a rule, do not frequent the bull-ring, though there are many and brilliant exceptions; you may see on the Paseo in the city of Mexico almost any day the most elegant equipages on that grand boulevard among whose occupants are little children dressed in the full ring costume of the t reador. The Mexican small boy plays at bull-fighting as the American does at base-ball, or as the more sporty one puts on the gloves with his fellows — is it then any wonder that the custom prevails since the children are taught to admire it?

CHAPTER XVI

RANCHES AND RANCHING

In Mexico, every large plot of land used for agricultural purposes, or for cattle grazing, is known as a ranch or "hacienda." In the majority of instances the haciendas are devoted to the grazing of cattle and the raising of agricultural products in conjunction with one another.

Farms which in the United States would be considered unusually large, placed beside these Mexican ranches would shrink into insignificance. In America a ranch of 60,000 acres is considered exceptional. In Mexico a ranch covering 100,000 acres is considered relatively small. They range from this figure up into the millions of acres under one man's ownership. There are farms in Mexico employing 10,000 laborers and covering territories as large as some of our New England states. Mexico is the country of vast landed proprietors, the whole of the country being controlled and practically owned through indeterminate grants from the government to a relatively small number of land barons.

THE MEXICAN TABLE-LANDS

The great mass of the farming and ranching territory consists of an elevated plateau formed by the expansion of the Cordilleras of Central America, from which terrace slopes descend with more or less rapid inclination towards the Atlantic on the east and the Pacific on the west. It is on these slopes, too, that great haciendas have been built up. The wealth of the higher land lies in its wonderful silver and gold mines and in the immense value

of its forests of precious woods. The table lands of Mexico lie at elevations of from 5,000 to more than 9,000 feet above the sea level and they exhibit great variations of land and soil. Rising out from these plateaus are some of the highest volcanoes in the world. The most famous of these is the volcano of Popocatapetl, or The Smoking Mountain, whose peak is 17,880 feet above the sea level.

The principal chain of mountains intersecting this table land is the Sierra Madre range, in which lie the chief gold and silver mines of the country. Lesser ranges break up the Pacific slope of the plateau and cut the land with deeply cleft ravines of astonishing magnificence. Up these ravines and all over the west coast during certain periods of the hot season there blow storms of exceeding violence, and it is during these months, also, that the climate of the coast is exceedingly prejudicial to persons of the white races, although during recent years knowledge of preventive medicine and preventive sanitation, and the exercise of greater care in the choice of drinking water, have done much to lower the death rate among the whites who remain in the lower lands during the hot season.

In the far southern part of the country, in the Peninsula of Yucatan, science has been unable to check the ravages of fevers which attack the natives almost as readily as the whites. Weakened by the brutal slave-driving which the laborers undergo, the terrible diseases attack the emaciated frames of the workers and they are killed off by fevers in appalling numbers annually.

But to return to ranching as it is carried out in the more favored parts of Mexico:

MANY VEGETABLE PRODUCTS

While the staple farm products raised on these great ranches are comparatively few in number, the differences

in altitude that may be found in Mexico permit the growing of almost all the vegetable products that may be found between the equator and the pole. In Mexico, in the course of a few hours, a traveler may experience every gradation of climate, embracing torrid heat and glacial cold, and a pass through different gradations of vegetation, including wheat and sugar cane, apples, olives and guavas.

The Spaniards on their first visit to Mexico distinguished its climatic divisions under three heads: Tierras Calientes (hot or littoral lands), Tierras Templadas (temperate lands), and Tierras Frias (cold or high lands). The mean annual heat of the hot lands is 77 degrees, and the soil, which is generally fertile, produces corn, tobacco, bananas, oranges, pineapples, and other fruits and vegetables which grow under similar climatic conditions.

The tract of which mention will be made later as a great slave district, knows only two seasons, the hot and the dry; the winter, or season of north winds, and the summer, or season of breezes. It is during the season first named that there occur the terrific storms that yearly pass over parts of Mexico and are known as "northers." The one redeeming feature of this season is that at this time the coastal regions are free of the ravages of yellow fever.

It is in the medium elevations that some of the most productive farms are found, and it is certainly on these that the best class of laborers are found to work the farms and there live the best class of townsmen. The temperature is extremely equable, varying from 70 degrees to 80 degrees as the greatest heat. Water is plentiful and fairly pure, and crops grow vigorously.

To call the third division "cold" from our northern standpoint is a misnomer, but from the standpoint of tropical countries the thermometer falls considerably lower than is generally experienced so near the equator. The average temperature is approximately 66 degrees,

falling at times considerably below this figure, and during the hot months it rises much higher.

CONDITIONS OF LABOR

The condition of the laborer ranges from a state of comparative freedom in the northern part of the country to one of partial serfdom as one progresses south, and finally in Yucatan and neighboring territories the state of the laborer is reduced to actual slavery — and slavery of the cruelest sort. Men, women and children there are literally worked to death, and if they fail to meet the demands made on them by their owners it is no uncommon thing to have the slaves stretched out by their hands and feet and flogged until they are dead.

In the more northern territories, however, the treatment of the peons who do the work on the ranches is more humane, but in the end it amounts to little more than a system of contract labor which places the laborer in a position of virtual ownership by the managers of the haciendas.

It is practically impossible to buy tracts of land in Mexico with a clear title, but it is not difficult for foreigners to persuade the Mexican land barons to lease for a given number of years parts of their own immense tracts of land. American capital having secured a lease on the land, the owners find already on the territory families occupying the acres and in the possession of crude adobe houses and crude instruments for purposes of tilling the soil. The more wealthy of the peons might possibly own an ox or two, but in their absence all of the labor on the plot is done by hand.

AMERICAN MANAGERS' METHODS

Taking possession of the main buildings standing in the center of the territory acquired by lease, the new managers go among the peons and offer this proposition: "We," the managers say, "will provide you with

modern instruments for plowing and cutting and reaping your grain crops, but at the same time you must give us your promise that you will turn over to us all of the grain that you reap from the tracts of land you occupy. In return for this a certain percentage of your debt to us on account of the farming tools will be wiped out. At the same time you will be allowed credit at the company store for the value of the grain in excess of the installment payment you have made on the machinery given you."

The company owning the hacienda is by this means relieved of the responsibility of superintending the growing of the crops. The running of the concern becomes largely a matter of bookkeeping. The grain turned into the company by the laborers on the farm is paid for at from one-third to one-half its market value. The expense of storing, however, and shipping to markets where there is a sale for it is borne by the company's officers.

PAYMENT FOR THE CROPS

On many of the haciendas, however, instead of payment for the crops being made in credit at the company's store, the laborers are given cash for their produce. But in the end it works out in the same way, because of the fact that the only place peons have an opportunity to spend their money is at the company's store. The money, therefore, eventually finds its way back to the pockets of the hacienda owners. At the same time, in this return of the money to their pockets a considerable profit is reaped, because the prices charged at the company's stores allow a wide margin of profit.

PLAN SUITS THE PEONS

Strange as it may seem, the Mexican on the better regulated ranches of this sort is perfectly contented with his lot. Through the presence there of American capital, he is enabled to get credit, or money, and hence is able to

make purchase of things which to us might seem humble enough, yet to him are luxuries. The better equipment he gets enables him to get through his day's labor with a little less effort than under the old regime. His home, a humble adobe building most likely, plain as it may be on the outside, yet within is added to here and there with simple comforts that, without the presence in the district of American capital, he would utterly lack. He marries and raises a family of children under conditions in the northern part of the country, at least, which are in some points of view enviable. The system has the advantage that while a peon may never possibly rise to any great level of wealth and certainly not to social position, yet through persistent effort he may provide for the comforts of himself and family in direct proportion to the labor, industry and intelligence he puts into the cultivation of his little farm.

LIVING FROM HAND TO MOUTH

The lower-class Mexicans themselves are a slow, easy-going folk, crushed by so many years of oppression into dogged servility, but when in a fight among themselves they have no great fear of death, as, indeed, what of great value is there for them to live for? They live from hand to mouth and from day to day, having apparently little care for the morrow.

Daily wages, when labor is paid for in cash, amounts to about 35 cents a day in United States currency. Among the laborers the clothes worn are of the simplest kind, a pair of trousers, a shirt and a hat, and maybe a pair of sandals. These are used where the character of the ground they are to travel over is rough, or is likely to be infested by the many kinds of cactus growths with which the country abounds.

The men are usually paid once a week, on Sunday, but they invariably have contracted debts during the week equaling or amounting to more than the total of their

weekly wage. The result is that a few minutes after they have been paid they are penniless again and are borrowing or opening charge accounts once more at the company's stores.

ONE RESULT OF RAISING WAGES

A characteristic story is told of an American who started a tobacco plantation near Mazatlan in the territory of Tepic, and after the initial start had been made commenced reaping big profits from his investment. The men doing the actual work on the tobacco fields at this time were receiving approximately 35 cents a day. The American, in a spirit of generosity, decided to let his employes share in some measure in his profits and he raised the pay of the men from 35 cents a day to a dollar and a half. This was done shortly prior to the time the tobacco was to be harvested and the American made the increase in pay in anticipation of the profits he was to make on the season's work.

He paid the men off on Sunday morning, and one by one they gradually disappeared until the three or four Americans on the hacienda were the only human beings on it. The following morning, when the call was made for the men to get into the fields, there were none present to take care of the harvest. They did not appear that day and the American made frantic but unsuccessful efforts to get other men to go into the fields and cut the tobacco, which had just reached the proper stage in its growth for harvesting. He was unable to do so, and in the due course of time the wet season came around, the dried leaves were soaked, and the whole crop became a total loss.

Five weeks later, almost to a day, the hundred or more employes of the hacienda who had vanished re-appeared on the ranch and announced that they were ready to go to work.

"You fools!" cried the American, addressing them.

" Don't you know that the crop time has come and gone and that the whole harvest is lost. Where have you been? Why should you have gone and treated me in this way just at a time when I gave you a great increase in your pay? "

" That was just it," responded the leader of the men. " Senor was so good as to pay us five times as much as we were getting before, so what was the use of our going to work again until all the money had been spent? "

HOW THE OWNERS LIVE

The owners and managers of these large ranches live in great adobe buildings in something of the grandeur of ancient feudal lords. Mexican housemen or " mozos " attend to every want of their employers and life is made exceedingly easy for the management. While the owners of the hacienda are up and at work early in the morning — almost as early as their employes — from two to four hours during the middle of the day is set aside as a time of rest for both the laborers and the managers. From half past eleven in the morning until 2:30 to 3:30 p. m., during the greatest heat of the day, the whole human population of the ranch — and the animals as well — take their daily " siesta."

PEON SLAVERY IN THE SOUTH

While the lot of the peon in the northern part of Mexico is not so bad as it has often been pictured, in the southern part, in the states of Yucatan and Campeche and in the territory of Quintana Roo, the peon is in a state of absolute slavery and the treatment accorded him by his masters is such as to rival the ill treatment of slaves and captives in the most barbarous times of the world's history. The Peninsula of Yucatan is an elbow of Central America which shoots off in a northeasterly direction almost half way to Florida. The peninsula is some 80,000 square miles in area and embraces the two

Foyer of the Juarez Theater

Juarez Theater, said to be the finest in America

Small farms in the valley on Mexican National Railway

Scene on a Mexican hacienda

Castle of Chapultepec in the Valley of Mexico

Open top observation car of the Reau Campbell Tours, from which many of these illustrations were photographed

Waterfall at the Bridge of the Gods, on the Mexican Central RR.

At the Floating Gardens, La Viga Canal

states and territories named, each of which is slightly in excess of 25,000 square miles in extent. Yucatan is about 1,000 miles directly south of New Orleans, La.

The character of the country is such that almost nothing of an agricultural character will grow, yet the population of the country is more dense than that of the United States. The land is barren and rocky, but it is the scene of the production of henequen, or sisal hemp, from which binder twine and hemp rope are made. This territory furnishes the world's supply of this material.

WHERE SISAL HEMP GROWS

Henequen itself is a variety of hardy cactus plant which has been found peculiarly adapted to growth in the strange rocky soil of Yucatan Peninsula. Rows and rows of the gigantic green plants extend for miles and miles, the farms being of immense size and each hacienda house being surrounded by a small city of employes or slaves who work the hemp plantations. The number of slaves employed on the farms varies from 400 to 2,500, according to the size of the plantation itself and the wealth of the men who are operating it.

Nearly a quarter of a billion pounds of sisal hemp are annually exported from this tract of land. This vast amount is grown and harvested by an army of slaves who are under the absolute control of about 250 landowners.

THE HENEQUEN KINGS

The owners of these plantations have made themselves hugely wealthy. Greatest of all the henequen kings is Olegario Molina, former governor of the state of Yucatan, whose lands in Yucatan and Quintana Roo aggregate 15,000,000 acres. As slaves on these plantations, the Maya Indians constitute by far the greatest proportion. They number only a little under 100,000, while the Orient contributes about 4,000 slaves from Korea — and

the number is rounded out by about 10,000 Yaqui Indians from Sonora.

The Mayas who are now the slaves on the plantations were once the owners of the lands, but were deprived of their possessions and reduced to chattels by the powers which grabbed their lands.

"ENFORCED SERVICE FOR DEBT"

Now, as a matter of fact, while the slavery practised in the Yucatan Peninsula is just as truly slavery as was ever practised in any country, the owners of the ranches do not admit that the men employed on their lands are slaves. They call it "enforced service for debt." But once the man is put in this position he can be traded about and exchanged from plantation to plantation for a money consideration, just as much as any slave could have been bartered about in the old slave days in this country before the Civil War.

The "price" of the laborers fluctuates according to the condition of the money market. A good price for a man to bring is $400, but in years when the harvests are full, money is freely in circulation and there is a demand for men to take care of the henequen crops, landowners have been known to pay as much as $1,000 for a good, able-bodied slave. With the Yaqui Indians, however, the price is low. This is because the sullen disposition of the Indians, their quickness to anger, and not infrequently to kill their drivers, makes them much less desirable as slaves than are the more peaceable Mayas and Koreans. The price of the Yaquis is about $65. The slaves are mostly recruited from persons accused of some crime and arrested. Frequently the accusations are trumped up for the sole purpose of adding to the slave market.

A BUREAU OF IDENTIFICATION

An identification bureau of all the slaves in the employ of the various ranches or plantations is kept mutually by

all the slave-owners. The records kept are not unlike the record of identification kept in this country of criminals. Full-face and profile photographs of the various slaves are taken and notations made of any unusual markings they possess, as well as a record of all the standard items of measurement, such as height, weight, hair, color and facial characteristics. These are kept on file according to a scheme built up by the plantation owners, and when any Maya, Korean or Yaqui is apprehended on suspicion that he might have escaped from some plantation, reference to this index is made, the slave identified, and returned to the owner from whose place he escaped.

The theory of the " service for debt " device by which the laborers are held is that upon their being turned over to the plantation a price agreed upon is given by the plantation owner to the man who transferred the laborer to him. Possession of the man is first secured by charging him with some crime and arresting him. It is then the duty of the laborer to render service to his purchaser to a value equivalent to the sum which was paid for him. Sometimes in the towns the freeing of the laborer after a period of years is actually negotiated, but on the plantations they never secure their freedom. Once sold, they are the virtual slaves of their purchasers for life.

NO HOPE FOR THE SLAVE

An employer of a salaried man or a wage-earner as an incentive to work holds over the worker the possibility of discharge, and consequent loss of income, should the wage-earner not do his work in a manner to please his employer. In the Yucatan country, however, there is no such possible threat, because the worker earns no money. There the worker's happiest wish is that he may get " fired," but no such luck ever befalls him. The suggestion that a cutting down of their food supply if they failed to do the work that was required of them would be an incentive to keep them at their tasks, does not

hold good either, because the slave's food supply even under the best of circumstances is just large enough to keep him from starvation, and to cut it off further would result in nothing but the death of the laborer. So this cannot be used as a " big stick " over the slaves.

One thing only remains — and that is physical punishment — which can be used to keep them driving at their work or to punish them for misconduct. And this form of " incentive " is used freely and with terrible cruelty. One of the commonest forms of punishment is beating the slaves over their backs with wet ropes. The culprit in these instances is held on the back of a larger and more powerful slave while one of the overseers wields the lash with such force that each blow rips the slave's back wide open.

BEATINGS FOLLOWED BY DEATH

In numerous cases of this sort the slaves have died under the beating, or have bled to death afterwards. Not infrequently infection sets in in the open wounds, and death comes to the slaves some weeks later, possibly in the agony of blood-poisoning.

Another form of punishment for laziness — most often caused by a real sickness on the part of the slave — is to string them up by their thumbs, or to reverse this process and stringing them up by their big toes, let them hang head downward until they have become unconscious from pain and blood pressure.

In general, the owners of the plantations take no personal interest in the punishments meted out to the slaves. But there are instances on record where the managers actually wielded the ropes over their chattels, and other instances where the managers stood by and with coarse jests directed the inflicting of the punishment, the while laughing brutally at the writhings of the poor devil under the lash.

But the most terrible of all places in the peninsula is

the Valle Nacional — known throughout the 80,000 square miles as the Valley of Death. Therein are located great tobacco plantations. The reputation of the valley is that no slave who enters this area of scenic marvel ever comes out alive. It is a place of terrible fevers, wonderful tropical scenery and death-dealing flies. The number of its slaves is ever needing to be augmented to take the places of those who fail and die.

BREAKING THE YAQUI SPIRIT

One illustration will suffice to show the severity of the punishment meted out to slaves in Yucatan.

The Yaqui Indians are noted in their native state for the pride they have in their race and the resentfulness they show to any suggestion of subservience on their part to the commands of a person not of their race. They are a bold, copper-skinned race that would stand along with any American Indian in bearing pain stoically, and refusing to acknowledge the superiority of another man; but so terrible is the course of spirit-breaking that these Indians are put through in the first months of their stay on the slave ranches that it is a common sight to have these Indians so cowed in abject fear and broken in spirit that they will crawl upon hands and knees and like a dog lick the hand of the man who holds the lash which has been wielded over their backs.

A TERRIFIC BEATING

A Mexican traveler returning recently from a visit to one of these sisal hemp ranches described a terrific beating which he had seen meted out to a poor Yaqui Indian, whose only offense was that he had found himself physically incapable of performing within the day the amount of work that had been required of him by the slave-drivers.

" The laborers had lined up, several hundred of them, by a wall near their living quarters, awaiting instructions

as to what they should do that day," said the traveler, " when one of the overseers called out the name of one of the Indian slaves. This man stepped out — a lithe-bodied man, straight of frame but not of great strength. At the same time the foreman motioned to an enormous Chinaman to step out and seize the Indian. The poor fellow knew then what was coming and he snarled and for a moment made a show of resistance, but soon he whipped off his shirt with a scornful gesture and stood bare-shouldered in the center of a hundred pairs of horror-stricken eyes. His back was already cut and ribbed with welts of previous beatings he had received. The great Chinaman caught the Indian by the wrists and with a jerk threw him over his shoulders as he would a sack of meal.

" The Chinaman then bent double until the Indian's back presented a taut surface, exposed to any lash that might be applied to it. Next a great brute of a man with an arm like a blacksmith's stepped forward and after carefully choosing one of several lengths of wet rope, stood off and laid the rope's end across the Indian's back with all his might. A pause and he struck again exactly along the same welt as raised by the first blow. At this second lash the Indian's skin broke and the blood oozed forth. After the sixth blow the skin on his back commenced jumping back and forth, and quivering. At the eighth blow the Indian, until this time mute, gave an agonized cry and made pitiful appeals for mercy; but four more blows were laid on before the punishment ceased. When he was dropped to the earth he collapsed like a wet rag. He had lost consciousness.

ONLY A SAMPLE CASE

" This Indian has been there less than two months. In that time he had undergone many beatings, had been strung up by his thumbs, nearly starved to death and undergone other forms of punishment unbelievably cruel.

"The managers of the ranch laughed when I remonstrated with them about the treatment accorded the Indian, and said that he had been one of the most obdurate cases which had come to the hacienda recently, but that they expected with a few more beatings they 'would have him rounded into really tractable shape.' He ought then, they said, to make a good man. Of all the hundred Indians who looked on at the beating of their comrade, all had undergone the same course of punishment. But their spirits had been broken, and that was why, although there were not more than one or two officials of the ranch about, they had no longer the courage to protest against the treatment which was being meted out to their unfortunate comrade. Upon inquiry, I was laughingly told that more than one-half of the Indians brought to work on that ranch died before they were there a year."

CHAPTER XVII

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES

Mexico is not a manufacturing country. Such articles as the mass of the people require are, however, generally produced in sufficient quantities to meet demand. Mexico will never become to any appreciable extent a manufacturer of articles beyond those of which she produces the raw materials, yet this field is by no manner of means restricted. The revolution has greatly interfered with industries, of course, and in what follows we treat principally of conditions in recent times of peace.

The Indian, who forms the greater part of the laboring population, is not progressive. He is loath to lay aside the rude implements of his forefathers and take up methods of modern invention and progress. His needs are few and he is not inspired with a desire to improve his condition. Having inherited nothing but traditions and the meager physical means to provide for his sustenance, he zealously guards the one and utilizes the other to the same extent as his progenitors, leaving his children only what he himself received.

Everthing he does is executed in a perfunctory manner. He goes to his daily toil early and returns to his frugal meal and rest late. He is satisfied with his lot and cares little what the morrow may bring forth. But the Indian is losing ground. The whiter races are surpassing him, and with increasing transportation facilities, a new government fostering industrial interests, and the disappearance of internal strife, his successors will in the not very distant future either join the ranks of the

progressive people, as in the thickly populated portions of the Republic they have already begun to do, or will die off, to be replaced by a more energetic and ambitious class.

Manufactures will spring up with the increased production of raw materials, but the country's agricultural resources are so great that it is destined to become, still more than at present, a great exporter, so certain and so sure of good markets that capital is diverted to agricultural and mineral development rather than into manufacturing enterprises on a large scale.

RESOURCES LIE DORMANT NOW

What was said fifty years ago by Brantz Mayer about California is applicable at this time to Mexico. The whole world rushed to the Golden Gate when the news spread that fortunes lay sparkling in the yellow sands and auriferous rocks of that state, and every one shouldered a pick and a pan to seek the alluring nugget and aureate dust, noting not the fertile lands yearning like all of nature, to produce and reproduce. When the feverish excitement engendered by the pursuit of sudden wealth abated, then, and then only, did the wealth-seeker lay aside his pick and pan and take up the implements of agriculture and of other industries and make of that fair land what it is today. Mexico has been regarded by the natives and the foreigners as a land of mineral wealth only, and her many other resources are as yet but little noticed or developed.

Brantz Mayer's words alluded to above were these:

" California has, at least, illustrated one great moral truth which the avaricious world required to be taught. When men were starving though weighed down with gold — when all the necessaries of life rose to twice, thrice, tenfold, and even fifty or a hundred times their value in the Atlantic States — that distant province demonstrated the intrinsic worthlessness of the coveted ore and the per-

manent value of everything produced by genuine industry and labor."

If the country were populated, even in proportion to Guanajuato and its outlying districts, the census of Mexico would show 58,000,000 of inhabitants, according to a recent estimate, and under such conditions the agricultural interests would become and constitute an element of enormous wealth.

THE CATTLE INDUSTRY

One of the most important of Mexico's industries is cattle raising. The states of the northern frontier are so well adapted to such purposes that they may be said to be immense cattle ranges. The excellent situation of the lands, as well as their generally well-watered condition, will, as has been said by the persons who have given study to the matter, make Mexico a formidable rival to the Argentine Republic. In recent years Texan and English capitalists made extensive purchases of lands and live stock in the northern states and devoted themselves to the lucrative business of raising cattle for the market. But it is not only in the temperate and cold lands of the northern states that this industry may be carried on. In the warmer latitudes, where the herbaceous vegetation is exuberant and watercourses abundant, it offers equal opportunity for success.

The fattening of beeves on ranges well-conditioned for grazing or which lend themselves to grass growing and are well watered will give excellent results when the country is pacified and resumes its normal condition after revolutionary troubles.

The States of Durango, Sonora, Chihuahua, Nuevo Leon, Cohahuila, Tamaulipas, Vera Cruz, and Michocan present admirable fields for the carrying on of the cattle industry. The rich pasture lands of the latter state feed the thousands of cattle slaughtered for the sustenance of the residents of the capital of the Mexican Republic.

Some of the states above named are not well provided with water, but it has been demonstrated that with small expense all the necessary water can be provided by the boring of wells. In the State of Guanajuato a company, under the patronage of the state government, bored wells and began the breeding and fattening of the cattle on a large scale. This company imported into the country a considerable number of specimens of the best breeds of horned cattle from the United States and elsewhere, and, judging from appearances, its efforts were meeting with gratifying success when the revolution came.

Mexico raises great numbers of cattle for the United States and does so under better conditions of climate than the latter country, for the stock-raisers of this country lose thousands every year owing to the rigorous winters and severe summers, while in Mexico perennial spring smiles on man and beast.

Statistics show that thirty years ago in the Northern States of Mexico alone, over an area of 300,000 square miles, there roamed 1,500,000 horned cattle, 2,500,000 goats, 1,000,000 sheep, 1,000,000 horses, and 500,000 mules.

Other live stock, such as horses, sheep, goats, swine, etc., are also raised on these ranges for export.

HIDES AND SKINS

Another considerable industry is the collecting and exporting of hides and skins. Mexico occupies the fourth rank among the nations of the earth in this particular branch.

The kid exported through the Matamoros custom-house is much esteemed for the manufacture of strong shoes, its dimensions and weight ranking high. This kid brings from 45 to 50 cents per pound. The Vera Cruz goat skins are more sought after and bring 2 cents more a pound, while those from Oaxaca are lighter and bring about 39

cents per pound. These kids are considered among the best in the world for women's and children's shoes.

Another industry, although not a prominent one, is the killing of seals and sea-lions on the coast of Lower California, the skins being converted into leather.

Tanneries are to be found at many places and a very fair leather is turned out. There were thirty-three tanneries at the capital a few years ago. Mexicans are artists in leather work, and in making saddles they excel. Saddles manufactured in the country have sold for more than $800, being profusely ornamented with silver and finely stamped leather. The center of the leather-working industry is the city of Leon. There are no large shoe manufactories, most of the disciples of St. Crispin carrying on their trade in small huts or houses and on the sidewalks. The Mexicans are wonderful repairers of old and dilapidated footwear.

Among other industries may be mentioned the gathering of sponges, mother-of-pearl, abalone, and other shells, pearl diving and tortoise fishing. These industries are at present but little developed, but, with the exception of pearls, which at one time were quite abundant in the Gulf of California, that gulf and the coast of both oceans abound in the articles enumerated, all of which are the choicest kinds. The "carey," or tortoise shell, of Yucatan and Guerrero has been for a long time an article of trade. This article is also shipped to some extent from Magdalena Bay, in the territory of Lower California. In comparison to the returns the capital necessary to exploit these industries is small.

HAMMOCK MAKING

Another quite prominent industry of the Republic is hammock making. This is principally carried on in the State of Yucatan, where hammocks have been articles of use and barter from time immemorial. This fact is dem-

onstrated beyond peradventure by the discovery in buried cities of hammock beams and hooks.

Yucatan exports more hammocks than any other province in the world. These articles are made from the fiber called henequen, which grows so abundantly in the state named, and are woven entirely by hand, with the aid of a few very primitive implements, in this, as most other cases, the Indian proving his disapproval of innovations. All that is necessary to make a hammock is a couple of straight poles, a shuttle, a thin slat of zapoli wood, and a pile of henequen leaves. With these articles at hand a Yucatan native is prepared to accept contracts for hammocks by the piece, dozen or hundred. Some of these hammocks are brilliantly colored. The great hammock-making district, whence come the best made, and which produces more than all the other districts combined, is Texcoco. Almost the entire exportation of these articles is consumed by New York.

COTTON FABRICS

The principal manufacturing industry of the Republic is the making of cotton cloth, mostly manta, a coarse, unbleached cotton cloth. It has been estimated that the mills of the country consume annually 26,000,000 pounds of cotton, most of which is grown there, but quite a considerable quantity is imported. The industry gives work and support in the field and mill to more than 50,000 families. The mills are usually provided with English and American machinery of modern type, and a few operators carry on business on an extensive scale. The ordinary cotton cloth (manta), which is about the only material for clothing used by two-thirds of the inhabitants of the country, is usually made up in pieces of 30 yards 4 inches in length by 34.12 inches in width. The manufacture of knit goods as hosiery, underwear, etc., has increased considerably of late years, and has resulted in making a noticeable reduction in the amount of im-

ported goods of this character. The cloth made is of fair quality, and sells at from $1.62 per vara, carpets bringing from $1 to $1.34 per vara. A vara is 34.12 inches.

WOOLEN FABRICS

The weaving of "zarapes" constitutes a profitable industry, there being an extensive and increasing demand for them. These multicolored woolen cloaks or blankets are well made, those of Satillo and San Miguel being celebrated for their fine texture, brilliant colors, good finish, and excellent wearing qualities.

There are in the Republic quite a number of woolen mills, four of which, situated in the Federal District, have a yearly production of 162,000 pieces of cloth. It is not generally known that wool spinning has been carried on in Mexico for more than three centuries, yet such is the well authenticated fact. In the year 1541 the first viceroy introduced merino sheep into the country and established manufactories of cloth.

THE SILK INDUSTRY

Silk weaving can hardly be said to be a great industry as yet, but it is increasing rapidly. Silk was cultivated and sold in the markets of Mexico as far back as the time of Charles V., Cortez speaking of the fact in his letters to that monarch, and there are still preserved pictures done by the ancient Mexicans upon a paper made of silk. For some political reason, known only to the Spaniards of the day, the culture of the silkworm and the weaving of its product was prohibited by the Spanish crown in its American possessions during the vice-regal administrations. The industry gradually died out, and it is only of late years that it has been revived.

The climate of Mexico is considered unexcelled by any in the world for the raising and developing of cocoons. Silkworms are mostly raised in Oaxaca, in the state of the same name; Tetela, in the State of Puebla; Ixmiquil-

pam, in Hidalgo, and in the States of Jalisco, Oaxaca, Tlaxcala, Michoacan, Queretaro, Vera Cruz, Chihuahua, and Zacatecas. In all of these states, as well as in the Federal District, the white and black mulberry leaves grow. In the factories women are generally employed because of the delicacy required in the work, most of the female operatives receiving 37½ cents per day.

DISTILLERIES

Distilleries are to be found all over the country, yet very few of them have modern plants. These distilleries are chiefly engaged in distilling the liquor called *mescal,* a strong alcoholic beverage, which is colorless or of a very light amber tint. This liquor is distilled from the root of the American agave, and has an odor and a taste not unlike Scotch whisky. Mexicans claim that it has good stomachic qualities, but it is a great intoxicant. Another liquor made in Mexico is distilled from the sugar cane, and is called *aguardiente* (burning water). It is one of the strongest liquors known.

Grapes flourish in the States of Chihuahua, Coahuila, Nuevo Leon, Aguascalientes, and Sinaloa, as well as in some other parts of the country, and a very fair native wine and brandy are made of them, as well as raisins and sugar, but the industry is not a prominent one and the production does not supply the home demand.

Beer and pale ale are brewed, there being five breweries in the capital doing an extensive business, only one of which, however, is well equipped, and all of them do not supply the demand.

TOBACCO

The tobacco industry is extensive, nearly every town and hamlet having its cigarette factories, which may be counted by the hundreds in the Republic. The tobacco of Vera Cruz is considered to rival that of Cuba, and the factories of that city manufacture an excellent quality of

cigars, much sought after by foreigners. Cigarettes are very cheap, seven to eight hundred selling for a dollar. Good brands of cigars may be purchased from $35 to $80 per thousand, Mexican coin.

There are many flour mills in the country, and nearly all the millstones were imported from France. Not very fine grades of flour are manufactured, nor do the mills supply the domestic demand.

IRON FOUNDRIES

Iron foundries are numerous, the excellent quality of the Mexican minerals and their abundance making it possible for these foundries to turn out good work. Some large pieces have been cast, but the production is mostly limited to the smaller agricultural implements and ordinary marketable iron. There are some foundries where sugar-making machinery has been constructed and heavier work turned out, but foreign articles compete against them profitably. The government arsenal and gun foundry in the City of Mexico has done some excellent work. Arms and munitions of war have been produced at this establishment which speak highly for the skill and dexterity of the operatives in the establishment. Good work is also done in the two type foundries located in the City of Mexico.

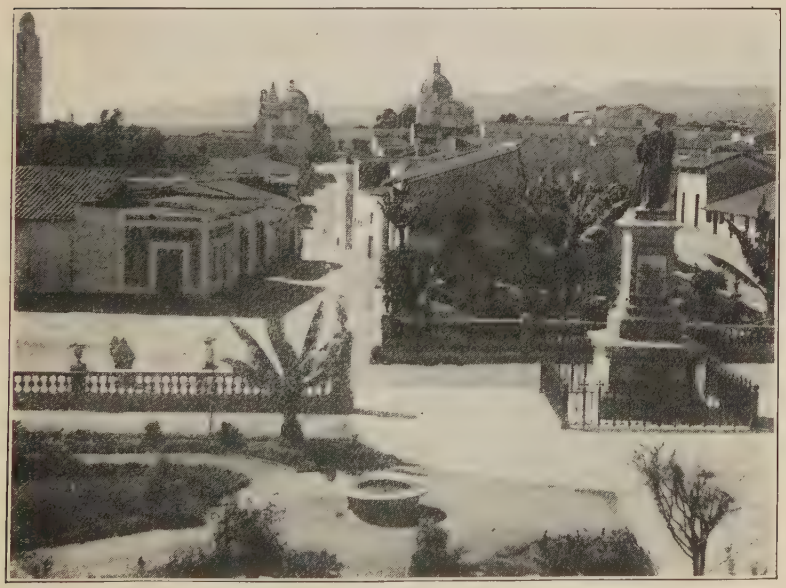
MEXICAN JEWELRY

Mexican jewelry has justly acquired a world-wide fame. When the Spaniards invaded the country, they acknowledged that the gold and silversmiths of the Aztec Empire excelled those of their own land.

The precious metals were used in casting vessels, some of which were said to have been so large that a man could not encircle them with his arms.

Gems like opal, turquoise or chalchihuitl, ruby, agate, heliotrope, and chalcedony, were mounted in gold, and

Summer Palace of Cortez, Cuernavaca



Monument in front of old Cortez Palace, Cuernavaca

A Street Bridge in Guanajuata

Porfirio Diaz in a parade, just after his last election

View of Ixtacchihuatl, from Sacramonte

View of Popocatepetl, from Sacramonte

Public Laundry, Jalapa

Water Carrier, with Goatskin

Street Car, Zacatecas

Washing the family dishes

artistic filigree-work in both gold and silver was made extensively.

According to the accounts of the early Spanish chroniclers, the ornaments worn by Montezuma must have been equal in elegance to many of the crown-jewels of the imperial families of Europe.

At the present day the traveler will not meet with any large specimens of silverware, excepting the exquisite silver service of Maximilian, which is on exhibition in the Museum at the national capital.

The modern jewelers confine themselves principally to the manufacture of watches, chains, necklaces, brooches, pins, buttons and other articles for personal adornment. The filigree-work in silver is worn extensively, but that of gold is seldom used.

Chapetas, or silver studs for hats, are made in large quantities. They are in the form of stirrups, revolvers, ropes, horse-heads, dull-heads, spurs and other figures. These chapetas are fastened on either side of the crown. Silver ornaments are sold at a low price, and they make handsome presents for tourists to purchase.

CHAPTER XVIII

MINES AND MINING

Nature has richly endowed Mexico with resources well nigh countless, but in the bestowal of mineral resources she has been most lavish. Beneath the surface of that volcanic ridge raised between two great bodies of water lie buried treasures incomparable, and although mining enterprises innumerable have for nearly 400 years exploited the metal-bearing regions and have extracted fabulous quantities of precious metals, by far the greater part is yet to be laid bare.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century Humboldt estimated the mines in Mexico to number 3,000. At the end of the century hardly that many were being worked, but since the railroads have been extended and remote sections of the country brought into closer communication, they have greatly increased in number and in value. This increase is also due to another cause.

During the economic crisis of 1886, due to the depreciation of silver, the Mexican Congress appointed a commission composed of distinguished men to study the question. The commission suggested as a remedy the absolute necessity of the production of something else than silver. It called attention to the undoubted fact that the Republic, possessed as it is of the most varied climates, was favorable to all kinds of cultivation, and in consequence it proposed a series of measures tending to the protection of agricultural and mechanical interests. The result of the studies and report of this commission has been the reformation of the mining legislation, en-

couragement to large companies, the working of coal, mercury, and iron mines, the revision of the customs tariff in a way favorable to agriculture and industries, and the conferring upon the executive of the power to accord advantages to the development of the cultivation of certain agricultural products. Another result of the work of this commission was the placing upon the free list a few years ago by the Mexican Congress of some eighty-six articles used in connection with the mining and agricultural interests.

MINES EXEMPTED FROM TAXES

The law of June 7, 1887, exempted for 50 years from all federal, state, or municipal taxes (excepting the stamp tax), coal, iron, and quicksilver mines. Iron of Mexico origin in bars, ingots, rails, etc., enjoys the same privilege. All mines other than those mentioned are subject to but one tax, which cannot exceed 2 per cent of the value of the annual product. The free circulation of gold and silver in bars or coined, and in general of all the products of mines, can not be impeded by any tax whatever. Mercury is exempted from all tax. The tax on reduction works levied by states of the Federation can not exceed one-fifth of 1 per cent of value of the works. The law also prohibits the states from imposing any other tax whatever upon mines, their machinery, products, the capital invested in them, the declarations or denouncements, or any other acts necessary to the acquiring of a mine. Pursuant to this law the government entered into many contracts with companies for the exploration and development of the mineral wealth of many of the states.

THE METALLIFEROUS BELT

From the state of Sonora to that of Oaxaca, an extent of about 1,242 miles, running northwest and southeast, lies what is known as the metalliferous belt, because it is of extraordinary richness and it comprises the greater

number of mining districts in the Republic, the most active centers being those of Zacatecas, Guanajuato and Pachuca.

This belt includes one hundred and forty-three important mineral districts, situated in the states of Sonora, Chihuahua, Sinaloa, Durango, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Jalisco, San Luis Potosi, Guanajuato, Queretaro, Hidalgo, Mexico, Michoacan, Guerrero, Morelos, Puebla, Vera Cruz, and Oaxaca. Mineral deposits also exist in the states of Coahuila, Nuevo Leon, and Tamaulipas, but they do not lie in the belt above mentioned and are mostly abandoned.

Of the two great ranges into which the Sierra Madre Cordillera is divided, the westernmost greatly exceeds the eastern in metal-bearing lodes.

In Chihuahua there are over one hundred rich mineral districts, with more than five hundred and seventy-five mines producing gold, copper, lead, mercury, salt, coal, and silver, generally accompanied by other metals from which may be obtained iron, zinc, antimony, arsenic, and other substances.

GREAT MINING CENTERS

In the district and near the city of Chihuahua is situated the celebrated Santa Eulalia mine, one of the oldest in the country, the products of which have left a monument in the very handsome parish church of San Francisco, erected in the city between the years 1717 and 1789 with the proceeds of a tax of one real (12½ cents) on each half pound of silver got from the mine. The total sum thus secured is stated to be $800,000.

Sonora is one of the richest cities as well as a most important mining center. It is noted for its high-class metals, among which are ores which are easily worked and so aid materially in smelting. There are also other minerals, such as asbestos, copperas, magnetic iron ore, muriate and carbonate of soda, and saltpeter. The native

silver is found in these districts in considerable quantities and native iron has also been discovered in the Sierra Madre, Papagueria, and the vicinity of the Colorado River.

Sinaloa has also more than one hundred mining districts, the mineral deposits being classified into six formations. Calciferous and quartz ore prevails with silver in a native state or combined with sulphur antimony, and arsenic, with more or less traces of gold. Veins of gold-bearing quartz exist in some localities and deposits of iron ore, sulphite of lead, zinc, copper, and silica are to be found.

The districts of Durango run mostly to silver, yet many other metals exist, such as tin and iron, in inexhaustible quantities in the Cerro del Mercado, which is an enormous mass of magnetic iron. This cerro, or hill, has been calculated to contain 60,000,000 cubic yards of iron ore, having a specific weight of 5,000,000,000 quintals (100 pounds). An analysis of this ore has given 66 per cent of pure metal.

Jalisco is another silver-producing region, and furnishes also copper and lead ores and coal.

A GREAT SILVER STATE

Zacatecas is the great silver-producing state. It is estimated that in the last three centuries its many mines, which were first worked by the Spaniards in 1540, but which had previously been worked in a rude way by the Indians have yielded over a thousand million of dollars. In 1910 there were over twenty thousand miners employed in the mines clustered around the city of Zacatecas.

Guanajuato is another far-famed silver-producing state, and has been and still is the center of great exploitation. The district bearing the name of the state was discovered in 1548, and has been worked almost continuously ever since that date, the output of its mines

reaching fabulous figures. Native gold has been discovered in this district and the late denouncing and registering of mines has disclosed the presence of other minerals, such as tin and bismuth.

In the mineral district of Queretaro are to be found lead metals, cinnabar and the ever present silver. The mines are numerous and important. The celebrated San Juan Nepomuceno or El Doctor mine is situated here, in the Cadareyta district. It is one of the oldest and richest of Mexico, its production being so great two hundred years ago that it paid the Spanish government $18,000,000 in taxes. It is in this state that the fine opals, which reflect every prismatic color and are much sought after, are found. Great beds of these stones exist on the celebrated hacienda of La Esperanza. The opals from this place are sold in the City of Mexico by itinerant venders at remarkably low prices. The most important deposit of these stones produces from $80,000 to $100,000 a year.

QUARRIES OF ONYX

Puebla's districts yield native gold, silver, oxide of manganese, and pyrites, as well as coal and iron ore. Here also exist quarries of beautiful onyx and what is known as Puebla marble. A syndicate was formed in New York some years ago, with a capital of $1,500,000, to control the almost sole source of the world's supply of onyx. This onyx is much used in the United States for decorating houses and in the jeweler's trade.

The state of Mexico is rich in mines of native gold and silver as well as those of copper, iron, and manganese.

The territory of Lower California is rich in minerals. The peninsula is barren and without water. The mountain ridge forming the backbone of the peninsula is a continuation of the coast range of upper California and it is interwoven almost over its entire extent with metallic veins of all descriptions. Near San Jose and Cape St. Lucas there are argentiferous and auriferous out-

croppings and in the municipalities of La Paz, El Triunfo, and San Antonio, veins of gold and silver, iron and other substances are exhibited on the surface of the mountains.

In the districts of Comundu, Loreto, San Luis, and Muleje in the northern part of the peninsula, rich copper mines abound; also other metals, such as mica, iron, tin and oxides of iron, besides gypsum, enormous piles or hills of which are to be found, marble, alabaster and sandstone. Gold was discovered near Santa Gertrudis, north of Muleje, about 1884, and it is said that the mountains and gulches in that vicinity have rich veins of this metal.

In this district there are also solid mountains of iron.

The frontier district of Lower California is noted for its gold digging and ledges, mica and other mineral substances such as sulphur, soda, and salt. American capitalists are largely interested in this region.

Besides the minerals named there are in the peninsula plumbago, sulphuret of lead, porphyry, prismatic pyrites, sulphur, oxide of antimony and lead carbonate and phosphate of lead, hydroxide of iron and hydrosilicate of copper. Near Todos Santos exist some lime quarries.

DISCOVERED THE PATIO PROCESS

The state of Hidalgo deserves more extended mention here as it was in one of its districts that a Mexican miner discovered the patio process for reducing ores — a process which to this day is most in use in Mexico, and one which no miner or mining engineer has been able to supersede by a more economical one for reducing the peculiar ores in which the country abounds. The great mineral district of this state is situated in the vicinity of Pachuca, the principal mines being the Real del Monte, Antontolico el Chico, and Zimipan.

Pachuca with its rich cluster of mines lies on a plain about 60 miles from the City of Mexico, and is one of the oldest mining centers in the country, having been worked for more than three and a half centuries. It has a pop-

ulation of about 50,000 souls, mostly Indian miners. It was here that the process of amalgamation called the patio process was discovered by the celebrated Mexican miner Bartolome de Medina in 1557. The very hacienda and reduction works where this discovery was made are still to be seen in the town.

There are in Pachuca and the mining regions adjacent about 300 mines. Sulphate of silver is the prevailing metal, although native silver mixed with ore is found in some of the mines. Most of these mines, as well as those in other states, are still operated in the primitive Mexican fashion. The metal is brought up in rawhide sacks by means of ropes made of the fiber of the maguey wound about a large malacate, or horse or mule whims, and the peons or laborers carry pieces of ore weighing sometimes between 100 and 200 pounds on their backs from " headings " of the levels to the main shaft. Some foreigners are employed in the mines of Pachuca and elsewhere at good wages, but they generally are superintendents, engineers, bosses, etc.

The most celebrated salt deposits of Mexico are those of Penon Blanco, in San Luis Potosi, their product containing from 70 to 80 per cent of chloride of sodium. On the coasts of both oceans there are also a great number of salt mines, the most useful being those of Yucatan, whence comes the salt used for reducing the product of the mines of Hidalgo.

Mexico also has deposits of precious stones, such as opal, topaz, emerald, agate, amethyst, and garnet. It is related that one of the heroes of Mexican independence, General Guerrero, possessed some diamonds which had been given him by one of his soldiers, who had found them during an expedition in that part of the Sierra Madre running through the State of Guerrero. The field or locality whence came these precious stones, of which the general gave but vague information, has been vainly sought by various prospectors.

The total metal product of Mexico in coined gold and silver, in gold and silver bullion, in minerals not treated, and in other metals, as well as the balance exported or utilized in home consumption may be put down at about $70,000,000 per annum.

There are five processes for the reduction of ore at present in use in Mexico — the patio, tonel, lixiviation, fuego and pan.

THE PATIO PROCESS OF REDUCTION

The patio process, invented, as before stated, by Bartolome de Medina, consists of amalgamation with quicksilver. A description of this system of treating ore is as follows:

" The ore as it is brought from the mine is in large pieces; this is piled up in the court-yard in a huge pile, and does not look as if it contained any mineral, but like so much red stone. It is in the first place put into an inclosed box, and pounded to pieces by immense wooden pounders, armed on the end by iron pestles which are lifted up by arms connected with an axle, which is turned by mules. The ends of these arms fit into a notch in the pestles and lift them up to a certain distance, and then the end of the arm slips out of the notch, the iron pestle falls down with an immense force upon the mineral, and comminutes it into small pieces. These fall down upon a sieve made of hide, and the smaller pieces fall down through the holes in the sieve, and the larger pieces are thrown back under the pestles to be again crushed. There are several of these pestles in a straight line, connected with the same axle, and they are lifted up alternately.

" After the ore is pounded in pieces in the mortars (mortears) it passes to the tahones, or mills, which consist of a round vat, placed on a level with the floor, where the ore is ground up into fine mud (water being added), by means of three heavy and hard granite stones of an oblong shape, which are tied to the arms, connected with

a revolving axle turned by a mule, which walks around in a circle, blindfolded. Into holes made in the stones sticks are introduced, and these are connected by means of ropes or chains to the revolving arms. There are several of these circular vats, all situated in a line in a long room, each worked by a mule blindfolded. These are called tahones, and the crestpole in the middle, peon, with its two brazos (arms) of wood, from which are suspended the heavy stones called metapiles, or crushers.

"From here the ore, looking like so much mud, is thrown out into the patio or yard, which has a floor well made of some hard cement or stone, and here are added quicksilver and salt in a liquid state, or caldo (soup) as it is called. It is thus left in the open air exposed to the heat of the sun some twenty or thirty days, and is stirred up every day or two by the feet of men and horses, who walk around in a circle until the quicksilver and salt are well incorporated with the ore. When this process is completed the mud thus mixed is called torta de lama (cake of mud). After the ore is thus worked or brought to a proper state it goes to the lavedero (washing place), called tina (vat), which is round and made of wood and stone, where the silver is separated from the earth, and here is where the tortas de lama are taken from the yard, and here remains, after the mud is washed out, what is called the plata pina (amalgamated silver), containing quicksilver; this amalgam is then put into stout canvas bags and submitted to a heavy pressure to get rid of the mercury, and afterwards it goes to the furnace, where the silver is purified of all foreign substances."

A FURTHER PROCESS

An additional process is connected with this system in the reduction of certain kinds of ores, as follows:

After the mineral has been exposed to the sun in the patio, or the yard, it is transferred to the planillo, which is an inclined plane in the open air, having a solid stone

floor some 60 feet long and 20 feet wide. At the foot of this sit a number of nearly naked men, who occupy themselves by throwing water gradually on the mass of mud by means of pieces of ox horn, so that the mud flows off, and runs outside of the yard in a ditch, and the silver with some mud is left at the foot of the inclined plane. This requires a great deal of skill, as the water must be thrown on gradually. After this process, the greater part of the mud has flowed off and only a small portion remains, which contains the silver. This mud is then removed to a room in the second story, where it is placed in the criso, a large round iron boiler, with fire underneath; water is added, and it is stirred up by means of revolving arms worked by a mule, and the remaining mud flows off, only a small portion remaining. The rest of the process consists in removing the remaining substance to the amalgamating room, where quicksilver is added, which unites with the silver in the mud, and then this is further washed, and only the quicksilver is left united with the silver. This is further purified in a furnace and the silver runs off into molds.

THE LIXIVIATION PROCESS

Another method in vogue is smelting, and lately American machinery and systems have been introduced in many of the mining districts. Lixiviation is the system adopted in several of the states. Leaching tubes have taken the place of barrels and pans in a number of the mills. A writer on Mexico has thus described the lixiviation process:

" The rock is crushed dry and passed through screens of twenty to thirty meshes to the inch. It is then roasted in reverberatory furnaces with salt. The roasted ore is then subjected to the water process, being kept in large tanks or tubs, constantly covered and run over by clear water during a number of hours, after which the water is drawn off, and a cold solution of hypo-sulphate of soda

is made to pass through the ore until it is ascertained that the solution of another solution is precipated by the addition to that solution of another solution of quicklime and sulphur, known as calcium sulphide, which is made by boiling lime and sulphur. After the precipitation, and the running off of the precipitation liquid, the silver appears as a sulphate, is put into canvas filters, dried, roasted in reverberatory furnaces to carry off the sulphate, and then melted in bars. If the operation is carefully performed the bullion resulting will be from 900 to 1,000 fine. The solution is pumped back into the tanks to be used again."

CHAPTER XIX

COAL AND OIL DEPOSITS

Mexican geologists affirmed for many years that no mineral coal existed in that country. About the year 1881, however, reports from several parts of the country claimed that anthracite coal had been discovered, and many specimens of what was supposed to be this mineral were sent to the National College of Engineers to be assayed. Much enthusiasm was aroused by these reports, and the Department of Public Works appointed scientific commissions to visit the alleged coal localities and report thereon. The labors of these commissions proved that coal did exist, assaying from 41 to 92 per cent, the latter in the state of Sonora. It was to this coal that General Rosecrans gave the name of black gold. The commissions discovered and reported on anthracite deposits in Sonora, Michoacan, Vera Cruz, Guererro, Oaxaca, Puebla and other states.

The excitement and enthusiasm thus created led to the formation of many coal companies, and many persons looked forward to fortunes out of collieries, but the results were not great. This enthusiasm was succeeded by a state of depression and inactivity by the discovery that the seams of coal brought to light were poor, and that the reports and rumors were exaggerated. Want of means of communication between the deposits and the markets also had much to do with the quiescent state. The depression continued until profitable coal deposits were unearthed in Coahuila, and were purchased by C. P. Huntington, the American railroad magnate.

Mr. Huntington's mines produced in the first year they were worked 150,000 tons, and were soon yielding 250,000 tons, which was shipped to the United States.

In 1890, a deposit of coal having continuous, powerful, and compact seams was discovered within a short distance from Piedras and, according to an examination made by a French engineer, the amount of coal in sight was 9,000,000 tons, of a superior quality.

In 1890, an English company, called "The Mexican Explorations, Limited," secured from the government a concession of coal lands in Sonora, and planned a railroad to connect the collieries with the port of Guaymas. One of the most important mineral deposits of Sonora is anthracite, it having been discovered at Barranca, on the Yaqui River, 100 miles from its mouth. The coal contains 90 per cent of carbon and is found in sandstone and conglomerate.

Plentiful coal deposits have also been discovered in the district of Justlahuaea, Oaxaca.

STATES SEEK DEVELOPMENT

The government of the state of Puebla has been anxious to stimulate the development of coal deposits, and to this end some years ago decreed all such properties exempt from taxes for twenty-five years. It, moreover, offered a bounty of $1,000 per year for ten years to the first company to supply Puebla with a quantity of coal at a price not higher than that of other fuel. Further inducements were offered to railroads which should traverse coal regions. All industrial enterprises, theretofore, had to rely on wood and charcoal for necessary fuel. Green wood cost from $7 to $8 a ton and charcoal between $25 and $30. To import coal from England entailed an expense of $40 per ton of 2,208 pounds, and coke from the Vera Cruz gas works cost $30 per ton.

Until recent years no foreign company or outside cap-

ital stepped in to purchase coal or other mines in the state.

In 1890, coal was discovered in Jalisco, on the borders of Lake Ameca and San Gabriel Valley.

Deposits have also been discovered in the states of Tlaxacala, Vera Cruz, Hidalgo, Tamaulipas, and Nuevo Leon. Some of the coal found in the latter states is burned in the locomotives of the Mexican National Railway. Brown, or lignite, coal is found in many localities, although it is but little used.

The scarcity of fuel near the lines of the great railroads was the cause of great quantities of coal being imported. The Mexican Railway connecting Vera Cruz and the capital of the nation long used cakes of compressed coal imported from Great Britain, and the Mexican Central Railway, which formerly used wood, later imported its coal from the United States.

In November, 1890, a Mexican engineer, while examining the coal fields of San Marcial, in Sonora, found a layer 6 feet in thickness at a depth of 17 feet. The existence of coal, great in quantity and excellent in quality, for a distance of 10 miles in a northeast and northwest direction was proved. Operations at the coal fields are carried on about 40 miles from Ortiz, a town on the Sonora Railway between Hermosillo and Guaymas. This concession is owned by a Mexican company and covers 4,000,000 acres. Coal has been found in borings 50 miles apart. The diamond drill has gone through three veins — one of 2 feet, another of 4 feet, and a third of 7½ feet, and in a fourth it has already penetrated 22 feet, and is still working in coal. The coal, which by test is said to equal the finest Lehigh Valley product, can be traced for miles on the surface, the four veins showing the same thickness throughout the whole extent. A railway 60 to 65 miles in length carries the coal to the harbor at Guaymas, whence it can be laid down in San Diego, Cal., for $5 a ton.

It has been said that an extensive coal mine in Mexico will prove a greater bonanza than a gold mine.

GREAT OIL DEPOSITS

The territory of Mexico also abounds in deposits of asphaltum, liquid petroleum, and bituminous coal. For a long time these deposits were not worked to any great extent, however, many causes having existed for the non-activity in this and other industrial pursuits, among which may be mentioned the relatively small number of inhabitants in comparison to the extent and richness of the soil (there are about five inhabitants to the square mile), the absence, to within a few years, of public security and protection to property, and the lack of means of communication, which have been only lately partially supplied. Now there are great oil fields operated by English and American capital. The greatest of all is in the vicinity of Tampico.

The turning of the minds of the people of the country to peaceful business occupations and the ever-increasing influx of foreigners have created a largely augmented demand for illuminating and heating substances. The consumption of petroleum in Mexico, it has been stated on good authority, amounts to 5,000,000 gallons per annum. Foreign crude petroleum pays an import duty of 1 cent per kilogramme, which is about 10 per cent ad valorem on the average market value of the refined article.

The entire Atlantic coast of Mexico shows traces of oil and asphaltum, which there goes by the name of chapopote. In the northern part of the Republic between the foothills and the coast there exist springs and deposits of the substances named.

The deposits of asphaltum in the vicinity of Tuxpan and Tampico are excellent in quality, and from them the merchants of the coast have shipped at various times small quantities to the United States and Europe. This

A typical Mexican scene—Peon Women and Children

Santa Rosa Cathedral, Queretaro

A Mexican Beauty of the Upper Classes, showing mantilla, bolero, and use of the fan

The Rebel leader, Zapata, whose operations in Southern Mexico have been more or less independent of the Constitutionalist movement

The Prisoners' Band in the Penitentiary at Guadalajara

Patio of the Penitentiary in the City of Puebla, Mexico

asphalt may be easily broken into blocks and floated down the river to the seacoast, where it may be collected and laden on ships.

Crude petroleum springs running freely are to be found on the banks of several rivers, the oil flowing into these and covering their surface for some distance. When samples of this oil were assayed in Pennsylvania, they were reported to be of a quality equal to the crude products of that state. Some of these springs have a natural flow of three inches in diameter.

Deposits of bituminous coal of the class known as "Grahamite" are also found in the regions named. This was an important discovery, since the value of this article is much greater than that of anthracite coal, owing to the superior qualities it possesses for the manufacture of gas. One deposit is situated a few miles up the river from Tampico, and the amount of the coal in sight proves it to be an important field.

Almost all of the oil springs and asphalt and coal deposits are situated in localities favorable to their being worked profitably and their products easily transported.

Under a law of 1887, coal, iron and quicksilver mines and their products were made free from all taxes and duties for 50 years.

CHAPTER XX

LAND LAWS OF MEXICO

Land in Mexico may be divided into three regions, which have been called respectively, the hacienda country, the pueblo country, and the free country.

The first-named comprises the greater part of the central plateau, many of the temperate valleys situated on the slopes or terraces of this plateau, nearly all of the gulf coast, and many points on the Pacific.

The pueblo or community holdings lie toward the southern part of the country.

The free country, or pueblo lands, so called because of the fact that few if any haciendas or pueblos exist there, is situated in the north of the Republic.

As regards the central plateau, it is really marvelous that its lands retain their fertility, considering their great productiveness for hundreds of years. The only way this can be accounted for is that the system of irrigation there in vogue yearly resupplies the soil with natural fertilizing matter.

Previous to the conquest this very land had to provide food for at least twice the existing population of the country and was producing for more than six centuries unceasingly and without fertilizers. Strange, indeed, then, that it has not become sterile. But it is said that the day is fast approaching when the fecundity of this soil will vanish. Dryness and barrenness are already becoming evident in certain portions of the table lands.

The almost virgin land and that which invites the energetic arm of the careful husbandman lies on the east

and on the west, towards the coasts, and when the railroad system is complete and has united one and the other points, many fertile valleys will be in a position to bring forth two and three crops a year to gladden the eye and fill the purse of the tiller of the soil.

THE PUBLIC LANDS

The free or public lands are situated mostly in parts of the States of Chihuahua, Coahuila, Durango, Sinaloa, and Sonora. Immense tracts are here almost uninhabited, and in the western Sierra Madre the plains reach down to the tropics. These lands were formerly settled upon by religious orders, or were held by officers of the Spanish crown. After the war of independence and the escheating to the state of ecclesiastical holdings they became public lands, and are what are now called terrenos baldios. The nation, under a law to that effect enacted, has had most of the lands surveyed and measured, giving to the companies doing the surveying one-third of the land surveyed, and disposed of the rest to private parties and companies. About 100,000,000 acres have thus been disposed of, and the government still retains in the neighborhood of 25,000,000 acres.

The land in the north is generally laid out in squares containing from 4,000 to 6,000 acres.

The climate of this section greatly resembles that of the south of Europe, and is well adapted to colonization.

As has been said, the pueblo system prevails nearly everywhere in the south of the country, and the government will require some three or four years more to complete the reclamation of public lands in that quarter. The southern railroad system will not be completed before that time, and the country must wait some time before the fertile valleys of the States of Chiapas, Guerrero, and Oaxaca can be opened up to immigration and settlement. Land may, however, be bought there at very low prices, but organized immigration, compelled

to produce and sell quickly, should look elsewhere for a few years.

The great question in Mexico is water. The country, excepting the lowlands of the gulf is dry, and has been likened to Algeria and Egypt.

TERMS OF THE LAW

The law concerning the occupation of public lands (terrenos baldios) was promulgated on July 22, 1863, and, with amendments afterwards enacted, is in substance as follows:

All lands in the Republic are considered as public (baldios) which have not been utilized for public purposes nor ceded to individuals or corporations authorized to receive them.

Every inhabitant of the Republic has the right to denounce or enter upon public land to the extent of 2,500 hectares (about 6,177 acres), and no more, excepting natives or naturalized citizens of bordering nations, who can not, except by express authority of the president of the Republic, acquire land in any state or territory bordering on their country situated within 20 leagues of the boundary line or within 5 leagues of the coast.

(Aliens desiring to acquire property within the prescribed limits must apply to the department of public works (of Mexico), accompanying the application with a report of the government of the state, district, or territory wherein the land sought to be acquired is situated.)

The denouncing of public lands must be made before the judge of the federal court in the judicial district wherein the land is situated.

This step taken, the survey and plat of the land denounced will be made by the government surveyor, or, in default thereof, by a surveyor appointed by the court.

After the survey and platting, inquiry will be made at the land office if the land is in the possession of the government. Should this be the case the patent is issued to

the denouncer without further proceedings; but in the event of an adverse claim the case between the claimant and denouncer is tried in the courts, the government also being a party thereto.

THE DENOUNCER'S RIGHTS

In case the government is not in possession of the land the denouncement shall be published three times, at intervals of ten days, in the newspapers, and by notices displayed in public places. If no claimant presents himself, no patent shall issue, but a possessory title shall be decreed to vest in the denouncer; but should a claimant intervene, the case shall be tried, with the government as a party.

A judicial decree granting a patent or possessory title shall not have effect without the approval of the department of public works, to which end the record and copy of the map shall be forwarded to said department by the governor of the state wherein the land in question is situated, accompanied by the report he may deem it advisable to make.

The approval alluded to having been obtained, and the party in interest having filed the certificate and having deposited in the proper office the value of the land, in accordance with the biennial price list, or the requisite installment when time payments are allowed, the judge will deliver to him the patent, or possessory title.

The expenses incident to measurement, survey, or procuring of title and all other necessary expenses shall be borne by the denouncer, but he is indemnified in case an adverse claimant is successful against whom costs shall be decreed.

LONG LEASES TO FOREIGNERS

By act of June 7, 1886, the government, evidently intending to favor the introduction of foreign capital into Mexico, decreed, among other provisions, that for-

eigners shall not be required to reside in the Republic for the acquisition of waste or public lands, real estate, and ships, but that they shall be subjected to the restrictions imposed by the laws then in force. The act further provided that all leases of real estate made to foreigners shall be considered as sales if for a longer period than ten years.

The obligations contracted by an alien acquiring real estate in Mexico are:

1. To subject himself to the laws of the country in force at the time of acquisition or which may thereafter be enacted respecting the ownership, transfer, use, and improvement of land, and to submit to the judgment and decrees of Mexican courts in everything affecting the said land.
2. To pay all lawful taxes levied on the property.
3. To aid with his services and means in the preservation of order and security in his place of residence, except in cases of disturbance due to political revolutions, or civil war.
4. To perform the duties of a Mexican citizen, which a foreigner becomes on acquiring real estate, provided he does not beforehand declare his intention to retain his nationality.

(Up to the year 1886 the Mexican law recognized as a citizen every foreigner who had acquired real estate, or had a child born in the Republic, unless he explicitly made known his intention to preserve his nationality by being " matriculated," i. e., having his name and nationality inscribed in a book kept for the purpose in the department of foreign affairs, and outside of the capital in the state governor's office, etc., but by the law of July 7, 1886, the acts requiring the registration of foreigners were repealed. A foreigner, however, desiring to be recognized as such, may solicit and receive of the said department a certificate of nationality, which will constitute a legal presumption of foreign citizenship, but

will not bar proofs to the contrary being adduced in courts of competent jurisdiction in the manner established by the laws or treaties.)

TITLE OF AN ALIEN

An alien holding real estate in the Republic loses all right, title and interest therein in the following cases:

1. By absenting himself with his family from the country for more than two years without previous permission of the government. This does not apply to mining property.

2. By residing permanently abroad, although the owner may leave a representative or attorney to look after the property and represent him. Mines are also excluded from this provision.

3. By transferring the title to the real estate to any non-resident of the Republic, either by deed, will, or other conveyance. An alien thus situated must sell the property within two years from the date of absenting himself, under penalty of having it sold on his account by the local authorities. In the event of there being an informer to bring the matter to the notice of the proper authorities, one-tenth of the proceeds of the sale may be retained by him. Mines are not included.

Under the law, as given in substance above, the secretary of public works publishes every two years the prices at which government lands may be purchased.

CHAPTER XXI

THE LEGEND OF GUADALUPE

At Guadalupe, in the Valley of Mexico, is found the holiest shrine of all in Mexico and its legend is the prettiest of all legends.

As we read the little of Aztec history that the Spanish left unburned we may well wonder at the similarity of their religion to that of the Christians, and we are apt to conclude that the ancient Mexicans were not the pagans they have been painted, says Reau Campbell in his interesting "Guide." The Aztecs waited for the coming of a Christ to save them; Malintzi, the Saviour of the Aztecs, was a man of fair countenance, long flowing hair and beard, was of gentle mien and character, was and is to come to save the Mexican; Tonantzin was the Mother of Gods in their religion, and the people worshiped her on the Hill of Tepeyacac, now called Guadalupe, where the Holy Virgin appeared to Juan Diego and where her holiest temple stands. This is the legend of Guadalupe:

A pious Indian, Juan Diego, lived in the village of Tolpetlac, and as he went to mass in the church of Santiago Tlaltelolco, passed around the hillside of Tepeyacac, on Saturday morning, December 9, 1531. He heard the sweet music of singing voices; he was afraid, and, looking up, behold, a lady appeared to him and bade him hear what she might say; he should go to the bishop and tell him that it was her will that a temple in her honor should be built on that hill; he listened tremblingly, on his knees, and when the lady had vanished, went his way and told the bishop what he had seen and heard.

The bishop was Don Juan Zumarraga; he listened incredulously to the Indian's story and sent him away. Sorrowfully he returned to where the lady appeared to him, found her waiting and told the bishop's answer; she bade him come to her again.

On the following day, Sunday, Juan Diego came again to the hillside; the lady appeared for the third time and sent him to the bishop again with her message that a temple should be built for her. The bishop, still unbelieving and distrusting the improbable means of conveying such a command through this poor Indian, told him he must bring some unmistakable token that what he said was true, sent him away again, and, unknown to him, sent two servants to watch him; but as he approached the hill he became invisible in some mysterious way, passed around the hill, and alone saw the lady and told her the bishop required a token of the truth of her commands; she told him to come to her again the next day.

A MIRACULOUS "SIGN"

Then returned Juan Diego to his house, and found that his uncle, Juan Bernardino, was ill with the fever, *cocolixtli,* so that he must wait at home and attend him. Early on the morning of December 12, the sick man being at the point of death, Juan Diego started to Tlaltelolco to call a confessor; fearing that he might be delayed if he met the lady, and that his uncle might die unconfessed, he went another way, around the other side of the hill. But behold! she was there, coming down the hill and calling to him; he told her of his uncle's illness and of his need for a confessor, but she assured him that his uncle was already well. Then the lady told him to gather flowers from the barren rocks on top of the hill, and immediately the flowers grew where none had ever been before; she commanded him to take these flowers to the bishop as the token he had desired, and to show them to no other until the bishop had looked upon them.

Joyfully he folded the flowers in his *tilma,* a sort of cloak made of *ixtli,* a fiber of the maguey, and departed again for the bishop's house. From the place where the Virgin stood a spring of clear, cold water gushed forth; that is there to this day — a panacea for the ills that flesh is heir to. When he came to the bishop's house, the Indian dropped the flowers at the holy father's feet and upon the tilma appeared the image of the Virgin Mary, in the most beautiful colors. The bishop placed the wonderful tilma with its miraculous picture in the oratory of his house, holding it as a priceless treasure. Juan Diego, escorted by the bishop's servants, returned to his own home and found that his uncle was well, cured in the hour when the Virgin spake and told him no confessor was needed. A chapel was built where the roses had so miraculously grown from the rocks, and on the 7th of February, 1532, the tilma of the holy image was placed over its altar within the shrine. Juan Diego and his uncle, Juan Bernardino, became the attendants, and under the teachings of Fray Toribio Motolinia, Juan Diego and his wife took vows of chastity and remained in the house of the Virgin as her servants till Juan Diego died, in 1548.

SANCTIONED BY THE CHURCH

The legend had the sanction of Rome, first under Pope Alexander VII., who ordered an investigation by the Congregation of Rites with a view to the granting of authority for the perpetuation of the feast of the 12th of December, the day of the last appearance of the Virgin to Juan Diego, the day of his gathering the roses in his tilma, and the appearance of the image when the flowers fell at the bishop's feet.

Toward the middle of the eighteenth century the Virgin of Guadalupe was made the Patron Saint of Mexico for her protection during the plague of the *matlanzahuatl* in 1736. In 1754, Juan Francisco Lopez, a Jesuit priest,

having been sent to Rome for that purpose, secured favorable action by the Congregation of Rites, and the feast of the 12th of December was established by the Papal bull of Benedict XIV., dated 25th of May of that year, and the Virgin of Guadalupe was officially proclaimed the Protectress and Patroness of Mexico, or New Spain.

A NATIONAL HOLIDAY

On the 15th of September, 1810, when Hidalgo took the banner of this Virgin from the little church of Atotonilco and proclaimed the independence of Mexico, "Guadalupe" became the battle-cry of his followers.

The first Congress of the Republic of Mexico gave the festival further recognition by making the 12th of December a national holiday through the decree of November 27, 1824, and the day is religiously observed throughout the country, particularly by the Indians, who in former years walked hundreds of miles to present themselves before the holy shrine, and since the building of the railroads, come from the uttermost parts by train loads.

There are other festivals of the Virgin of Guadalupe, notably that of January 12, when the archbishop and the clerical dignitaries are present, and the feast is one of splendid magnificence; another on the 22nd of November, one on the 3rd of December, and on the 12th of each month.

At the foot of the Hill of Guadalupe is a group of churches, that have grown about the original church of Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe, built by Bishop Zumarraga, afterwards Archbishop of Mexico, who received the sacred tilma from Juan Diego. The first temple of the tilma was built and the image placed in it within fourteen days after the apparition. A hundred years after, a new and larger church was added and the tilma with its miraculous image placed in it, in November of

1622. Here the tilma remained for three hundred years, with the exception of four years, when it was housed in the Cathedral in the City of Mexico.

AID SOUGHT IN FLOOD

During the great inundation of 1629, when the city was endangered, the Archbishop Francisco Manso y Zuniga and the viceroy, Marques of Cerralvo, sought the aid of the Virgin for the subsidence of the waters, and to that end brought the image of the tilma to the Cathedral. The waters covered the face of the earth in all the valley, and the bringing of the image was in a barge, in which rode the archbishop; the viceroy followed in another barge carrying a brilliant company of the dignitaries of church and state.

This weird and unique procession passed over the waters in the night; the barges and gondolas were lighted with torches and paper lanterns, while the musicians played sacred music and the people sang their hymns to the Virgin. When the flotilla came to streets of the city the image was taken to the archbishop's residence for the night, whence it was taken the next day to the Cathedral, where it remained four years, till the subsidence of the waters, then taken back to the shrine at the Hill of Guadalupe.

THE CHURCH OF GUADALUPE

In 1695, the existing parish church was built and used as a temporary shrine of the Virgin of Guadalupe, while the work on a larger and greater temple progressed, which was dedicated in May, 1709. The arched roof is surmounted by a dome and lantern that is 125 feet from the floor; the supports are massive Corinthian columns. The nave is nearly 200 feet long by 122 feet wide. The original altar was from designs by the great Tolsa, drawn

in 1802, but the work was so hindered by the wars from 1810 to 1821 that little or no progress was made, and it was not completed till 1836; the cost to this time was nearly half a million dollars, which, added to the million or more that the churches had cost, made the expenditures nearly two million dollars up to that year. Around the chancel was placed a massive silver railing on a base of white marble, the gift of the Viceroy Bucareli, who lies under the pavement of the west aisle. The choir was of carved mahogany and ebony; there are other carvings in the sacristy, where there are also some paintings and two very curious tables of onyx. This church is what is termed "collegiate," that is, although not the seat of an archbishop or bishop, it has the organization of a cathedral.

In the year 1887, Father Antonio Plancarte y Labastida prepared to carry out a long cherished design for renovation and embellishment of the Church of Our Lady of Guadalupe, and he lived long enough to see the crowning glory in the completion of his work before he put down his burden. Father Plancarte died in 1898. When the work was commenced the tilma was moved to the adjoining church, one time the convent of the Capuchinas, but not without some opposition on the part of the Indians, who ever watch the image with a jealous eye. They are suspicious of every move; and when the work was completed the tilma was replaced in the renewed basilica on the 30th of September, 1895, at a very early hour before the break of day, thus avoiding further protests from the Indians.

On entering the great doorway there is a bewildering sense of the gorgeous magnificence of the scenic interior, and one stands almost in awe, with indecision whether to move on or stand there, and so great is the beauty of the ensemble that it is hardly possible to fix the eye on individual objects; before entering there was a pre-eminent object of seeing the famous tilma, but for the

moment even that is forgotten in the glorious harmony of color.

A MAGNIFICENT ALTAR

The magnificent altar containing the frame holding the sacred tilma is a mass of Carrara marble white as the snows of Popocatapetl, exquisitely carved and wrought with gilded bronze, executed at Carrara by the sculptor, Nicoli, from designs by the Mexican artists, Agea and Salome Pina. The bronze work was done in Brussels. On the left, or Gospel side, of the altar is the figure of Juan Zumarraga, on the Epistle, or right side, that of Juan Diego, done in Carrara marble; immediately in front is the kneeling figure of Mgr. Labastida y Davalos, Archbishop of Mexico, under whose care the great work was completed. Under the statue are his ashes and the remains of his father and mother. At the top of the frame holding the image on the tilma are the marble reliefs of three angels representing the archdioceses of Mexico, Michoacan and Guadalajara, which were chiefly instrumental in securing the Papal authority for the coronation. Above the high altar is a splendid Byzantine baldachin supported by pillars of Scotch granite, surmounted by a gilded cross of roses, the flowers of the Virgin of Guadalupe. The front arch of the baldachin bears the arms of Pope Leo XIII., the other three arches the arms of the Archbishops of Mexico, Michoacan and Guadalajara, who applied to Pope Leo for permission to crown the image of the tilma.

Underneath the high altar is a crypt with a vaulted iron roof that will sustain a weight of 300,000 pounds. The crypt contains four altars under the high altar, and has thirty urns for the reception of the ashes of the thirty persons who gave $5,000 each to the cost of the high altar and the baldachin, the total cost of which was $150,000.

In all there are ten altars in this great church. The fine windows of the church were the gifts of prominent people of Mexico.

The high altar holds the sacred tilma in which Juan Diego brought the roses to the bishop, and on which the image of the Virgin so miraculously appeared. Some years ago a number of artists and scientific men were permitted to examine the picture, which they did critically, taking off the plate glass, but they were not able to say that the colors were put on in any manner known to art; they all agreed that the picture was not painted, and by their decision the mystery of the picture was enhanced and its miraculous origin all but determined. The tilma has remained here in this place for nearly four hundred years; its colors are bright and fresh, while other pictures as old are faded and worn; is it any wonder, asks Mr. Campbell, that the mass of the people believe, since learned men and artists cannot of their learning and art gainsay the legend?

The adoration of the image on the tilma has not been confined to olden times; it continues, and will probably continue for all time. The culmination was on the 12th of October, 1895, when a crown of gold and jewels, a galaxy of gems, diamonds, rubies and sapphires, was placed over the tilma. On that day came pilgrims from every quarter; they thronged the church and covered the plain round about.

A MULTITUDE OF PILGRIMS

It was a magnificent scene to stand upon the hill and look down upon the numberless multitude of pilgrims, come from the remotest corners of Mexico and assembled without the walls, for only hundreds could get within the sacred portals. The unsheltered thousands knelt in mute adoration, with bowed heads, in the dust of the salty plain, and listened to the tolling of the bells in the

tower when the jeweled, golden crown was raised to the brow of the Virgin of Guadalupe, then fell down and kissed the ground in the fervor of their adoration and blessed the memory of good Juan Diego.

Within, under the arches of the vaulted temple, were gathered the dignitaries of the Church of Rome, come from all the sees and bishoprics of the western world, and in all the pomp and ceremony of the church, with mitered heads and gorgeous robes.

The glad news had gone over every hill, down to every valley and over all the plains of Mexico, that the coronation of Guadalupe was to be on this day. The news went not by advertisement or printed paper, but on the wings of the wind. The birds of the air told it to the people, and they came and knelt at the Hill of Guadalupe, that was called Tepeyacac.

The crown is of gold and precious stones, contributed by the women of Mexico from their own jewels, and was made by a Parisian goldsmith at a cost of over $30,000 for manufacture alone. In shape it is an imperial diadem, 62 centimeters high and 130 centimeters in circumference. There are 22 shields representing the 22 bishoprics of Mexico. Above these are angels circling the crown and upholding six other shields bearing the arms of the six archbishoprics of Mexico. From the wings of the angels are festoons of roses and diamonds gathered at the top under a globe showing Mexico and the Gulf.

Surmounting the whole is the eagle of Mexico bearing in its talons a diamond cross. The crown is held above the image on the tilma by a cherub. The shields are surrounded by emeralds and sapphires, and on the breast of each angel is a blazing ruby. Altogether it is the finest jewel used in religious ceremonies in existence.

At the coronation the ladies who gave their jewels for the crown carried it to the steps of the throne of the

Onyx Altar at Puebla, Mexico

Chapel on the Hill of the Bells, Queretaro, where the Emperor Maximilian was executed

General view of Zacatecas

LUIS TERRAZAS AND FAMILY

Great Mexican landowner held prisoner by the Rebels, who demanded a ransom of $500,000 for his release

Scrap Iron Market at San Luis Potosi

Street Market in Guanajuato

archbishop, where the Papal brief authorizing the coronation was read, and the notarial certificates of the action made, and it was received by the archbishop amid the clangor of bells and salvos of artillery.

The event of the coronation revived the discussion of the authenticity of the tilma and the image; one bishop at least, the Bishop of Tamaulipas, dissented and preached against it, and the great agnostic, Senor Don Juan Mateos, who has been called the Ingersoll of Mexico, opened the flood gates of his splendid oratory against the story of the tilma and eulogizing the advancement which he saw in the unbelief of a bishop of the church. But the legend will go on forever, and it can do no harm, even if it only serves for a pretty story.

The great church fronts on the main plaza of the city of Guadalupe, opposite the street that leads to the causeway over which the street cars pass to and from the City of Mexico. The church is a massive stone structure with a tall tower, filled with bells, on each corner; the southwest tower holds the town clock; the towers are over a hundred feet high. The center facade is of stone of marble whiteness, handsomely sculptured; twenty stone columns support the elaborately carved friezes of the first and second elevations; between the sets of two columns are life-size figures, also in stone. Immediately over the main entrance and in the center of the facade is a sculptured representation of the scene in the bishop's house when Juan Diego let the roses fall from his tilma, disclosing the image of the Virgin.

THE STONE SAILS OF GUADALUPE

Near the church is a stone stairway that leads to the *Capilla del Cerrito,* the Chapel of the Hill, built on the spot where the legend says the roses grew in the barren rock, at the Virgin's word, for Juan Diego to gather and take to the bishop in token of her wish for a temple there. About half way up the stairs are the Stone Sails of

Guadalupe, and thereby hangs a tale: Some sailors in dire distress in a storm-tossed ship that had lost her rudder, prayed to the Virgin of Guadalupe and vowed that if she would bring them safe to land they would carry the foremast to the Hill of Guadalupe and set the sails before her shrine. There the sails are to this day, incased in stone, a memorial to the protecting power of the Virgin. The date of the placing of this curious work remains untold in the annals of Guadalupe.

CHAPTER XXII

SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN MEXICO

There are but two classes of society in Mexico, — those who work to live and those who live by the labor of their fellow-men, — the one including all the wealth and intelligence of the country, members of the professions and public officials, and the other consisting only of those who serve. Between the two there is an almost impassable gulf; for the poor are hopelessly poor, and looked upon with contempt, while the high-born, if reduced to poverty, prefer starvation to manual labor, which is considered as degrading. At present there is no great powerful middle class, though such an element is being gradually evolved through the social and material progress of the country. There is not, as in most of the countries of Europe and in the United States, a great body politic consisting of farmers, traders, and artisans, many of them owning the land which they till, the wares which they sell, and the shops and dwellings which they occupy. This most important factor in the community, forming as it does the very backbone of a nation, is still in process of development. Thus the term lower classes, in whatever sense it may be used, signifies in Spanish America something different from its meaning elsewhere on this continent and perhaps elsewhere in the world.

The present condition and status of the lower classes are matters easy of explanation. Given as a base the conquered aboriginals, merged into innumerable castes by intermarriage with Africans and Europeans; steep them in ignorance and superstition; grind them for cen-

turies under the heel of political, ecclesiastical, and social despotism, and the result is exactly what might have been expected.

In physique, the Mexican peon is somewhat below medium stature, and of slender build, but hardy, and remarkably patient of fatigue. The men frequently carry for a considerable distance packages of two or three hundred pounds weight, the load being born on the back and shoulders and balanced by a leather strap around the forehead and chest, while women support lighter burdens on their heads, after the fashion of the French and Italian peasantry. Their condition is pitiable in the extreme; for in the cities they are the servants of servants, and in the country, bound by debt or family ties, they live, almost as bondsmen, on the haciendas, or the mines where dwelt their fathers and forefathers.

The lowest grade include some of the most abject creatures on earth, says Bancroft, beings who are almost a reproach to humanity, or rather to the European civilization which placed them in a condition far more degraded than that of their ancestors under aboriginal regime. They are thinly and but partially clad in coarse cotton garments, many of them going barefoot and bareheaded; their food consists of whatever they can pick up, and at night they huddle together in adobe huts, or sleep on the ground wherever they may chance to be when night overtakes them.

USED AS PACK ANIMALS

Even those who are a little higher in the scale of civilization are utilized in the cities as pack-animals, and in the mines in place of machinery; and yet so fearful are they of losing their employment that they destroy all labor-saving implements, even though they may tend to relieve them of a portion of their burdens. In the streets and on the highways they may be seen bearing huge timbers, loads of adobe, and boxes and packages of

enormous weight; and heavy articles, as pianos and iron safes, are carried for miles across barrancas almost impassable for vehicles.

But degraded as is the condition of the lower classes in Mexico, it has improved somewhat since the era of the revolution. Descriptions which have been handed down to us of the 20,000 leperos, or lazzaroni, who twenty years ago infested the suburbs of the capital, represent a scene of poverty, filth and wretchedness almost beyond belief. Not long afterward a law was passed requesting vagrants to go to work or suffer imprisonment, and this regulation produced a wholesome effect. Not that the reform proved radical, for to this day beggars may be seen who pass their lives standing, like statues, by the wayside or on the street corners, rather than raise a hand to provide themselves with food. Others, shockingly deformed, obstruct the sidewalks, and exhibit their twisted frames in mute appeal for aid.

Nevertheless there are few classes of laborers who do more work for less money than the Mexican peon. It is, moreover, a significant fact that there are few Chinamen in their midst, except on the plantations of the lowlands; for Mongolians cannot compete with them, either in amount or quality of labor, or in the straitness of their economy.

PEONS GIVE FAITHFUL SERVICE

The employer who keeps faith with his Mexican laborers, paying them promptly according to his agreement, will receive faithful service in return, being acknowledged as their master almost by divine right; for the peons and their ancestors have been drilled for centuries in the school of servility. So accustomed are they to kicks and curses that they regard this species of abuse as incidental to their sphere of life. Even when making their purchases at the stores they look with suspicion on the shopkeeper who addresses them politely; for such treatment

is regarded as significant of dishonest intent. Expecting to be asked an exorbitant price for goods, and then to obtain a reduction, if a fair equivalent is demanded, from which there is no rebate, they seldom purchase, though knowing that they can do so at cheaper rates than they must pay elsewhere.

In no respect are the several classes so strictly divided as in the regulation of traffic. The tradesmen who receive the patronage of the rich never come into competition with the provision stores, or bakeries, or pulque-shops which supply the wants of the poor. The latter dwell and toil apart; they build their own houses, provide their own food and clothing, and even when sick do not venture to seek the aid of a physician of aristocratic repute. On the one side there is arrogance and contempt; on the other antipathy and indifference; and there is no powerful middle class to stand between these opposing elements. And yet the people thoroughly understand each other; for each one knows his place and his sphere in life. Though the streets of the capital are usually thronged, there is neither hustling nor crowding, and there are few of those unseemly brawls and sickening tragedies which occur so frequently in the cities of the northern republic. There is little scolding or altercation among the women, and there is little violence, either in word or deed, among the men. Even rival journalists are urbane, and politicians are seldom turbulent, however fiercely may burn the fires which underlie the surface.

ALL GRADES OF CASTE

Among the upper classes, as among the lower, may be found all gradations of caste, in addition to the pure-blooded European and the pure-blooded American. In point of ability, education, wealth, comfort, and refinement, the former far excel the standard to which in the estimation of foreigners they are entitled; for in these respects they are by no means behind the other civilized

nations of the world. Those who are most prominent in society and in politics are exclusive and reticent, making no parade of their resources and opportunities; but he who attempts to impose on them by superior subtlety and shrewdness will surely meet with disappointment. Wealth, education and gentility are the principal passports to society; but the possession of wealth alone does not win recognition for its owner, and all who are but one or two degrees removed from the brute condition of the peon have rights which are duly respected, though they may not possess a dollar in the world.

The number of Spaniards in Mexico has been estimated at 30,000, and of other foreigners, apart from Americans, at about the same figures, the latter class of population being variable, though constantly increasing in number. The term foreigner is applied to all who are not born in the country, whatever may be their parentage. On the other hand, a native of Mexico, though of foreign descent, is called a Mexican, if by any political act, as voting or accepting office, he has proclaimed his nationality. As a rule, Europeans are not in sympathy with Mexican institutions, holding themselves apart, frequenting their own clubs and places of resort, and regarding the natives with offensive superciliousness. Moreover, European merchants have sought to monopolize the trade of the country by spreading false reports, by smuggling and taking advantage of official corruption, and by helping to keep the masses in poverty and ignorance, while charging the evils produced by their own baseness to the faults of a government which they openly despise, in common with everything else that is Mexican.

LABOR IS ABUNDANT

Labor is abundant in Mexico; in some places the supply is greater than the demand, and as the laboring classes can live on such frugal diet and need so little clothing, wages, except for imported skilled labor, are small.

Speaking of these classes, a Mexican newspaper says: "One of their greatest evils at the present time is the existence of a scale of wages which defies all power of reduction; which robs the laborers of all sense of dignity, or feeling of association with the rest of their fellow citizens, and having reduced them to a condition of abject debasement, deteriorates to a like extent their productive power and the measure of their utility. Instead of claiming and occupying the position of an important and essential element in the process of the development of the country's resources, they, the laboring classes, are content to regard themselves as a plant, or machinery which moves by extraneous aids only, and has no power of volition, and no desire to exercise it if it had."

Mr. John Bigelow, late minister to France, once said that the laborers of Mexico lived at less expense than a farm horse in a New England state.

A VERITABLE FEUDAL SYSTEM

The hacendados, as the large landowners are called, own immense tracts of land, and the hacienda, or manor, is a congregation of buildings forming, at times, quite a settlement, and is generally fortified. The hacendado usually works his possessions in accordance with the traditions handed down from the time of the Spanish Conquest — a veritable feudal system. He is not only a landowner, but he is a dealer in provisions, clothing, etc. His peons, as the laborers and the tillers of his soil are called, are descended from those his father had before him, and they are paid, live, and work as their progenitors were and did. The peon is born under the shadow of his master's house, grows up and remains under him, following his father's steps in everything, using the same implements, and receiving the same pay, generally from 27 to 37½ cents a day. On many of these haciendas the Indian may be seen clad as were his prototypes on the banks of the Nile, and handling tools and working in the same

manner as those that toiled when the Pharaohs reigned. The best wages are paid in Yucatan.

MEXICAN ARCHITECTURE

The prevailing style of architecture throughout Mexico, so far as regards what may be termed modern buildings as contradistinguished from the ruined temples and palaces of the Republic, is the Spanish renaissance. The cathedrals and churches are all built in this style. Arabesque work and stone carvings ornament the facades of nearly all religious edifices. Governmental buildings and those devoted to public uses are generally imposing and commodious. The National Palace in Mexico City has a frontage of 675 feet and is two stories high.

Private houses are always substantially built, generally in a rectangular form around a courtyard. It is rare, except at the capital, to see a private residence over two stories high. The roofs are flat, with a wall running entirely around them. The roof is called the azotea, and in the warmer region is often utilized by the residents for sleeping purposes during the dry season. Growing plants and shrubs are often to be seen in the azotea and in the courtyard. The windows of the houses are generally barred with railings of iron. The larger residences are constructed of igneous rock, such as porous amygdaloid, porphyry, or trachyte. Dwellings are made usually of brick and tepetate (a kind of clay thickly sprinkled with sand and pebbles, which is soft when taken out of the deposit, but on exposure becomes exceedingly hard) and are stuccoed.

On the table-lands houses in the smaller towns and villages are constructed of adobe, a sun-dried brick made of dark clay mixed with straw.

COST OF LIVING

It may be said in a general way that the cost of living in Mexico is not great, although, of course, it varies in

different localities. In the interior towns and villages the common necessaries of life, such as beef, vegetables, etc., are cheap. Coffee and tea, the latter being very seldom used or seen in the interior, are dear. Luxuries are not to be thought of, as they are only procurable from distant points and at great expense. Imported German beer and English ale in some cities of the interior costs 75 cents a pint. Butter, when it is procurable, and it is sometimes made without salt, is very expensive. If one can accustom himself to the rich, highly-seasoned food, and does not object to a considerable sameness in and a limited bill of fare, meals may be had at hotels in the interior for about 50 cents each. Board and lodging at these hotels range from $2 to $2.50 per day.

In the City of Mexico living is more expensive. Hotels charge from $2.50 to $5 per day. Good meals may be procured at any first-class restaurant for $1.

Ready-made clothing, except of an inferior quality, is not to be had; but imported English and French cloth is made up into suits at about the same cost as in the United States. The large dry-goods establishments, millinery stores, etc., are as well stocked as those of the larger cities of the United States and for imported goods the prices vary very little from those prevailing in the latter country.

RENTS ARE HIGH

Rents in the City of Mexico, however, are very high. This is due not so much to the rapacity of the landlords as to the cost of the house-building and other reasons. Landlords, when renting their houses, have to pay into the municipal coffers a tax of 12 per cent on the annual rental, besides pavement, drainage, water and stamp taxes. The expense in taxes on a house costing $10,000 to build and renting for $75 per month is $13.08 per month, or about 17½ per cent of the receipts.

There is not much money to be saved by hiring private

lodgings unless it is proposed to take them for a protracted period. Furnished rooms in desirable localities cost nearly as much as hotel apartments. Although unfurnished rooms may be secured, the cost for furnishing them is very considerable; still they rent for about one-half the amount charged for furnished rooms. *Casas de huespedes,* corresponding to the American boarding house, abound, but as a rule the meals served are not of the best. Their charges are relatively moderate.

The hotels are generally not provided with baths, but in Mexico City, as well as in every interior city and town, there are excellent public baths.

The peons in the warm, well-wooded regions, build of wood, palm leaves, and stalks; in the table-lands, of adobe, the houses having flat roofs of stamped clay supported by beams.

In the Indian villages the rudest possible habitations are to be seen, often being mere frameworks of limbs of trees with the bark on and thatched in on all sides with grass, palm leaves, or stalks.

PUBLIC PORTERS

A considerable number of the Indian population act as public porters on the highways. Men and women engage in this occupation, and many use alpenstocks while walking. An ordinary porter will carry a load of one hundred and fifty pounds for a distance of twenty miles daily. All kinds of merchandise are transported on the backs of porters.

One Mexican traveler reports that he saw an Indian carrying a large sofa on the road from the City of Mexico to Cuernavaca. It was fastened to his body by means of ropes and straps passing across his breast and forehead, and extending under his arms.

During the eighteenth century the Spanish priests are said to have imported donkeys, or burros, in large numbers to take the place of porters in carrying burdens. But the porters still follow their profession.

The laboring classes of Mexico are exceedingly jealous of the introduction of labor-saving machinery. They regard it as an unwarranted means of preventing them from earning a living. Two occurrences in recent years, related by Alfred R. Conkling, will serve to illustrate the antagonism of the peons to modern improvements:

Soon after the adoption of the compressed air-brake on the railroads of the United States, the Mexican Railway Company discharged several of their brakemen and introduced this improved brake on their trains. The company's servants rebelled against this system, and stole the stopcocks from the air-pipes, thereby compelling their employers to reinstate them.

Recently the owner of a large hacienda purchased an outfit of American agricultural implements. His peons saw in them an unjustifiable interference with their own methods of farming, and in the course of a few weeks the enlightened hacendado discovered to his surprise that his stock of instruments had been destroyed. These facts are significant, but fortunately the intense feeling against new inventions and improved machines is confined to the lowest laboring classes.

In constructing railroads, the contractors introduced the wheelbarrow among the peons. They carried it on their heads when filled with earth, and it was found that more work could be done with a gunny-bag held on the shoulders.

MEXICAN COSTUMES

The upper classes, especially the government officials, in Mexico, have in recent years discarded the national costume, and now wear the European dress. Black coats and silk hats are as commonly seen on the Plaza Mayor of the City of Mexico as on Broadway or Fifth Avenue.

There is a great variety of costumes, however, among the country gentlemen, and among both sexes in the lower

classes. The Mexican hat, or sombrero, is the most prominent part of the national dress. It is either of felt or straw, and has a very wide brim. When made of the former material, the color varies from light gray to brown and black. The crown is trimmed with a silver band, and the brim is oftentimes heavily embroidered with silver thread. The cords around the crown are either single, double or quadruple, and small silver ornaments called *chapetas* are attached to both sides of it. Straw hats are generally provided with puffed bands of the same material, and occasionally silver cords are worn on them. The peasantry wear plain straw hats and white cotton shirts and trousers. Cloaks of water-flags or palm-leaf strips are used by the Indians. They are impervious to the rain.

A *zarape,* or blanket woven either of woolen goods or of both wool and cotton, is worn in the early morning and in the evening. An infinite variety of patterns may be seen in these *zarapes.* Stripes of various shades of red, yellow, and brown, are the prevailing colors. Unlike the *ponchos* and *mangas* of Spain, the *zarapes* are thrown over the shoulder instead of inserting the head through a hole or slit in the middle. However, some of the latter style of blankets are worn, especially by diligence-drivers and donkey-boys. Stage-coachmen also wear leggings embossed with large nail-heads.

Huaraches, or leathern sandals, fastened with straps over the instep and across the ball of the foot, take the place of boots or shoes among the lower classes.

The usual style of dress among the peasant women consists of a white waist and skirt, with a blue scarf or shawl (*rebozo*). Straw hats, like those worn by the poorer class of men, are donned by the women.

The ladies in cities are generally dressed in plain black, and without a bonnet. They carry black silk parasols and black fans. The mantilla is now generally disused. Since

1881 young ladies, especially in the City of Mexico, have been wearing hats of foreign make and dresses of various colors.

The American consul at the capital in 1880 said that his wife was compelled to send to the United States for a bonnet, being unable to purchase one in the City of Mexico.

The hacendados and country gentlemen usually wear suits of black cloth, consisting of a short jacket with silver buttons, a waistcoat cut low, and pantaloons opening on the outside of the leg, with two rows of fancy silver buttons along the outer seam. A *faja,* or sash, which is commonly of a red color, is added to the costume, and the boots are made with high heels. This dress is worn in the *tierra fria* (colder regions), and in the upper part of the *tierra templada* (temperate region). In the *tierra caliente* (hot country), the gentry wear plain white cotton suits with sombreros of felt or straw. In riding through the underbrush, *chaparraleros,* or loose leather trousers, are worn over the ordinary pantaloons. Except in the large cities, swords or machetes are usually attached to the saddle-bow.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE ALCABALA SYSTEM

The alcabala system of taxation in Mexico is so little understood abroad that it will not be out of place to give a short resumé of it here. Escriche, in his law dictionary, defines the word " alcabala " as follows: " The tribute tax charged upon the proceeds of all sales or barters, which is paid into the public treasury."

The etymology of the word is doubtful. It is not known whether it is of Moorish, Hebrew or Latin origin, or is a corruption of the Spanish phrase *algo que valga* (*al que vala*), which means " something of value."

The alcabala was first established in Mexico at the beginning of the year 1575, and the tax could be farmed out to corporations, civil or municipal, or individuals, being purchaseable at public auction. The term " alcabala " was generic and included import duties as well as the tax on sales. Under this system the exportation of articles, especially of precious metals, which were greatly handicapped by excessive duties, was restricted.

The first alcabala laws promulgated in Mexico, or New Spain, in the course of time were gradually modified, and assuming different forms and expanding, constituted eventually a complete branch of jurisdiction.

The commercial movement of the Spanish colonies was much impeded by the Spanish laws, or as was stated by a writer in a Mexican publication, " was subject to regulations which, by an inexplicable contradiction, were called free trade regulations." These regulations prohibited

the interning of foreign goods and manufactures in the colonies.

After Mexico secured her independence and established her autonomy, the first governments were obliged to continue under the fiscal system which previously obtained for fear of reducing the revenues and also because of the transitory character of the governments.

Thus, in 1821, and for years afterwards, the alcabala system was organized and worked as it was under the vice-regal régime, with the exception of some modifications in the matter of the number and salaries of employes and the amount of tax on certain articles. These changes did not reduce the tax, however, as it continued to be more burdensome, many articles having to pay 16 per cent ad valorem.

REFORMS INTRODUCED IN 1830.

About the year 1830 certain radical reforms were introduced, establishing the regulations to be observed in the collection of the alcabala, which, however, only served to restrict trade and hamper the freedom of the transit of goods. Under these regulations through goods subject to duty carried to a destination known under the system as distinto suelo (literally, different soil) had to pay another tax, which was not imposed in case the goods were destined to another point of the same soil. To explain: Cordova was the center for the collections of the tax, and had four other soils dependent on it, viz., Coscomatepec, Huatusco, Tomatlan and Zongolica, to which places goods having paid the alcabala at Cordova could be transported and disposed of without incurring further duties. Should goods, however, be introduced into a soil not within the jurisdiction of the collection center, they would be liable to new duties.

This obstacle to the free transit of goods was all the more injurious and far-reaching as the number of soils

Patio of a wealthy Mexican's residence

Home of family descended from the Aztecs

"Ovens" or Mortuary Vaults, Pantheon at Guanajuato

First-class Funeral Car on Mexican Street Railway

into which the country was divided was increased, and there were at one time 276 different soils in the Republic.

The alcabala legislation of this period declared a 5 per cent extra tax on consumption, over and above duties, on foreign products and manufactures. Foreign liquors were taxed 10 per cent extra. Four-fifths of the 5 per cent tax and nine-tenths of the 10 per cent went to the federal treasury, the residue being turned into the treasury of the state collecting the same.

The coastwise trade was less hampered, a system of permits prevailing under which a trader going from port to port paid the duties on the goods as they were sold, the permits covering the articles disposed of becoming void. Warehouses were established for the coasting trade where merchandise might be deposited for a period of forty days, at the expiration of which time the owner was required to remove the goods, failing to do which he was charged a half real (6¼ cents) per day for each package, piece, bale, barrel or case. Should the withdrawal of the goods be delayed for forty days longer the customs officers, after summoning the owner, proceeded to the inspection, appraisement, and assessment of the goods and sold the same, or such portion as might be necessary, to liquidate the duties.

OFFICIAL MEANING IN 1839.

In 1839 the administration declared the official meaning of the word alcabala to be:

"The tax on the price of property, sold or bartered, which the seller or barterer pays to the public treasury."

This tax was 12 per cent on the majority of taxable articles and was divided into fixed and contingent tax, the former being the 6 per cent levied from the year 1639 on all sales, barters or transfers of taxable things, and the latter being 6 per cent added to the alcabala in 1817 in

place of certain war taxes levied to carry on the struggle for independence.

During the period of the dictatorship, offices for the collection of the alcabala were opened in the states and territories, and all collections were turned into the general treasury.

As regards collection, the tax on consumption of foreign goods and the alcabala on domestic articles were payable at the port of introduction, the place of sale, or of final destination, according to the regulations for the coastwise trade and other regulations in force previous to the establishment of the federal system.

In 1857 the federal congress amended the constitution by adding Article 124 thereto, which article abolished the alcabala tax and interior custom houses throughout the Republic on and after June 1, 1858. This amendment had little effect, however, and might be classed as a dead letter.

Since 1880, the alcabala has continued to be the most general tax in the country.

But little can be said of the tax laws in the several states of Mexico, for they are in a very unsettled condition. The abolishing of the internal custom houses cut off much of their revenue.

CHAPTER XXIV

BANDITS AND THEIR WORK

The most picturesque of all Mexican classes are the rurales, or "country police," whose salaries are paid by the government of the country instead of by the local authorities. The duty of these men is to preserve peace in the country districts in the same way that regular policemen preserve peace in American cities. Among these men are found some of the best horsemen in the world; they are accurate shots with rifle and revolver and wear the typical uniform of Mexican soldiery, consisting of trousers tight about the hips and flaring at the bottom, a soft shirt, a short jacket, a broad sombrero, and a gay-colored sash hung about the waist.

The rurales were an institution of President Diaz, who picked the men from the bandits that during the early years of his régime infested the country. He paid them better salaries than the total they could make by brigandage, raised them to a certain position of distinction, and made the office of a rurale a thing to be aspired to. The men he chose proved worthy of the trust he imposed in them and as the system spread throughout Mexico Diaz evolved a wonderful instrument for suppressing revolts in their incipient stages.

WEAPONS OF AN IRON HAND

The rurales were the great weapon of the iron hand with which Diaz ruled the country. Upon arrest by the rurales the leaders of any insurrection were invariably put to death, in reality at the order of Diaz or his lieu-

tenants, but appearing in the public records as having been "killed while attempting to escape."

The rurales were in constant and active service and well able to keep in hand any situation that arose, until the revolution instituted by Madero, whom the people believed was a true champion of their rights, took the popular fancy and revolt flamed widespread. The groups of bandits posing as allies of Madero become so numerous that the rurales lost control of the situation. Murder, pillage and looting progressed on every hand and the rurales saw the lowest laboring men making more money by being bandits than they themselves — the rurales — were making. Then on every hand they severed their affiliation with Diaz and themselves became the most bloodthirsty of all bandit organizations.

RISE OF BANDIT LEADERS

The lash of the rurales removed, brigandage became the chief occupation of many men in the rural districts. Farming and agriculture were neglected, and the country rapidly sank into a state of demoralization. Natural leaders on a small scale rose by the dozen. Men that had been the poorest workers and the laziest men on the haciendas quietly vanished from sight along with a band of a dozen other men, and a month or so later some fellow hitherto considered worthless would reappear at the ranch at the head of a body of a hundred or more mounted men. Demands would be made on the American owners of the ranch for horses, rifles and provisions, under threat of general slaughter if the demands were refused. Invariably, however, the Americans gave in to the demands, because they knew that to offer resistance was almost futile, as the men still remaining on the ranch, at the firing of the first shot, would just as likely as not flock to the side of the bandits, or still worse, commence shooting at the Americans from places of protection within.

Starting afoot or with miserable mounts, and armed often only with the machete or scythe he was using when the inspiration came to him to join a passing band of brigands, the lowliest of laborers in less than a month, after a few successful attacks on prosperous ranches, would find himself riding a superb horse, modernly armed, and wearing clothes which a short time before adorned the back of some wealthy Mexican landowner. The result, of course, when such a person returned to the ranch where he had been originally at work, was to inspire envy in the hearts of the men who did not become bandits, and set them to following in the footsteps of their comrade.

A TYPICAL CASE

A case in point was the attack in the fall of 1912 upon the Hacienda Quimichis, territory of Tepic, located about seventy miles south from Mazatlan. Shortly before midnight the Americans on the ranch were awakened by the sound of a horse pounding along the road toward the ranch-house. The rider dismounted at the gate, knocked loudly at the door, and was admitted after identifying himself as a mozo in the employ of the ranch.

He said that he had been riding in the vicinity of the ranch-house and in the distance had seen a body of horsemen quietly approaching. He knew that they could not be employes of the ranch and said he surmised they were bandits.

A few minutes after his arrival several men appeared before the great gate of the ranch-house and demanded admittance. The manager of the ranch went out onto a little balcony above the doorway and replied that he would not admit them until they stated their business. Then in a cold, matter-of-fact way the leader of the band, Guido Hilago, who a few weeks prior to this time had been employed at the ranch as a butcher boy, told the manager who he was, said that he had a hundred Mex-

icans hidden a short distance away behind some buildings, and demanded that the ranch-owners give up certain rifles that Hilago said he knew to be stored in the ranch headquarters. He also demanded that he be given certain horses. Hilago made threats which stirred the ire of the manager and he refused to accede to the demands. Hilago then withdrew.

FORCED TO DESERT THE RANCH

A few minutes later, behind almost every bush, the Americans saw Mexicans stealthily advancing as they kept in the dark shadows. The manager and eight other American men on the ranch took position behind loopholes and at a given signal opened fire. It was returned by the bandits, but without any of the Americans being wounded. A rapid fire was kept up on the part of the Americans and several Mexicans fell.

Surprised by the unexpected resistance offered them, the Mexicans withdrew for a conference. While this was in progress the Americans also held a hurried consultation and it was decided that as there were American women on the hacienda it would be best to take advantage of an avenue of escape which was offered them by a river which flowed to the sea and passed the ranch-house several hundred yards in the rear. They escaped to the river, boarded canoes, and two days later were picked up by an American vessel standing at sea off the mouth of the river. Their property was deserted and left at the mercy of the bandits.

OTHER EXCITING EXPERIENCES

Experiences of other Americans in Mexico were even more exciting.

Among the refugees compelled to leave Mexico in 1913 by the transport " Buford " was Alphonse Ardòurel, a mining engineer of Boulder, Colo., state senator from his district in the Colorado Legislature. He had been

mining at Cumuripa, Sonora, up the Yaqui River from Corral station. So bad had conditions become, according to Mr. Ardourel, that it was impossible for him to remain longer in the country. All the Americans except himself had left, taking what advantage they could of the railroad, which had already had its service interrupted several times by burned bridges. For weeks, he says, every train had been crowded with Americans hastening to the border, where they found refuge on the other side of Nogales. All work and business had been paralyzed on the Yaqui River, where the Indians were on the warpath.

After two or three bands of Yaquis had raided Cumuripa, Mr. Ardourel finally gave up his work. As it happened, the train which he took out was the last train the railroad was able to run south of Empalme. On arrival at Guaymas, he purchased his ticket, but was assured by the chief dispatcher of the railroad that if the *revoltosos* burned another bridge on the line to Nogales, the railroad would tie up completely and not turn another wheel. He decided to risk being turned back, however, and left Guaymas on the morning of April 27, 1913. Before reaching Carbo, Sonora, however, the train was fired into by about one hundred mounted Yaquis, who sat their horses beside the track, and fired a volley into each coach as it passed. In the second-class coach ahead, one woman was killed, three bullets riddling her body, and the child she carried in her arms breaking its neck as the mother fell forward across the car seats. In the seat in front of Mr. Ardourel a man was killed instantly by a shot through the temple and fell in the car aisle.

The train then put back to Guaymas. Neither the train crew nor the passengers were able to discover which political party the Yaquis were fighting for, nor did they tarry long to try to learn their reasons for firing into an unprotected passenger train. In common with all the Americans who are refugees from Mexico, Mr. Ardourel

believes that neither peons nor Indians were fighting for any political party, but for the possible plunder and loot, and on account of the general lawlessness which the anarchistic conditions in Mexico encouraged.

GETTING OUT OF THE COUNTRY

At Guaymas, Mr. Ardourel, after six days, secured passage on the steamer "Ramon Corral," for Mazatlan, but while lying at dock in the harbor of Topolobampo she took fire. It was from this point that the manager of the Navalato Sugar Company made a famous ride on a locomotive to San Blas, and hired four section crews of the Southern Pacific Railway of Mexico, at an enormous price, to carry him the one hundred and fifty miles to Culiacan, from which point he reached the Americans on his sugar plantation at Navalato.

The fire on the "Corral" gained much headway before it was discovered. The main portion of the cargo was alcohol and gasoline, and had it not been for the presence of mind of an American locomotive engineer who was at the time switching in the yards, and came to the ship's rescue with a tank car backed up to his engine, an explosion would probably have been the fate of the steamer. As it was, the entire baggage and personal effects of the Americans on board was destroyed, though Mr. Ardourel believes the fire was a pretext for loot on the part of the crew, and says he found later a portion of his belongings which he had been told were destroyed in the fire, carefully concealed in the steward's room.

From Topolobampo, the "Corral" put to sea in her crippled condition, and after four days of sleeping on deck, and with scarcely any food, the American refugees reached the port of Mazatlan, where the transport "Buford" took them on board.

"The stars and stripes flying at the 'Buford's' mizzen," said Mr. Ardourel, "when she appeared on the horizon off Mazatlan, looked awfully good to me."

ANOTHER REFUGEE'S STORY

J. C. Alberts, an electrical engineer of Los Angeles, and Joseph Soler, his wife and three children, also of Los Angeles, who had charge of the commissary and subsistence department of the Tajo Mining Company, at El Rosario, Sinaloa, report their experiences as follows:

"We were driven out of our homes, and from our work and living, by the attack of the Zapatistas, under command of Juan Canedo, which took place on Saturday morning, April 29, 1913, and lasted all that day, and until Sunday afternoon, when the federal forces under General Ojeda came up on the attacking party's rear, and put them to flight, with 64 killed. It was a curious fact to us, at the time, when we saw the dead being brought into town, that there were so very few wounded. Most of the dead, however, had several bullet holes in them. I had sent out my wife two months earlier, when the first of the trouble began, and General Ojeda furnished us an escort of soldiers to protect the carriage of Mr. Soler and his family. I awaited the last day before the arrival of the "Buford," which the United States government sent to take us off, and in common with all the Americans on the west coast, believing that to be the first of Uncle Sam's moves toward intervention, decided it was better not to remain.

ATTACK BY REBEL CHIEF

"Trouble had been brewing," he continued, "for some time in southern Sinaloa. On the last day of February, Juan Canedo rode into town with fifteen men, without warning. This is not the usual procedure, for most of the rebel chiefs demand a town's surrender with a threatening letter, before they attempt to force it. The letter usually is enough, and the government's prefect, police, rurales, and all the officials of the town, like the postmaster, federal telegraph operator, judge, mayor,

jail guard, etc., flee at once. Getting opposite the prefectura, Canedo and his men galloped across the plaza, and charged right against the doors, just as the frightened police, who had hastily gathered inside, slammed the door. The prefect, a new man, and a brave one, went to the window above, and going onto the balcony ordered Canedo and his men to disperse, and fired his revolver into them, killing one horse. The *revoltosos* (rebels) replied with a scattered volley, and galloped off down the street, followed by the police, shooting at anyone they saw looking from door or window.

ZAPATISTAS COME IN FORCE

" One week later, while we were out on the power transmission line of the mining company, some of my men called my attention to a band of armed men on the opposite side of the river, moving through the heavy undergrowth which borders its banks. *' Revoltosos,'* said they. ' No,' said I, ' too many of them. Federals.'

" But it was impossible to get the men back to work, and suddenly they all cut together, pell-mell down the hill for the camp; for if there is anything a peaceable Mexican likes less than a Zapatista, it is a Yaqui Indian.

" I stood and watched them for some half-hour from the hillside, as they gathered both above and below the ford, but a bullet striking on the ground near me, I stepped down into a ditch out of sight. There was firing going on continually, the Federals defending the town from the tower of the cathedral. Most of the Zapatistas were armed with Winchesters and the Federals with Mausers. The attacking party numbered about 200 men. Many bullets narrowly missed me before I could make my way back to my house.

" In that part of Mexico," said Mr. Alberts in conclusion, " conditions are dreadful. Business is paralyzed. All industries are closed down. The ranchers cannot harvest their crops. Famine stares Mexico in

the face inside of one year. There is no government, law, order, police, prefects, or authorities. If one man robs or murders another, there is no one to interfere. As most Mexicans are undetained from violence by the standard of their ethical training, a strong hand and a government like that of the United States are the only things they respect or fear. Now there is neither justice in the courts, nor protection of life or property on the whole Mexican west coast."

CHAPTER XXV

FACTS ABOUT MEXICO

AREA AND POPULATION

The total area of the Republic of Mexico, including islands, is 767,005 square miles. The population, according to the federal census of 1910, is 15,063,207. The population of leading cities of the republic is as follows: City of Mexico (capital), 470,659; Guadalajara, 118,799; Puebla, 101,214; Monterey, 81,006; San Luis Potosi, 82,946; Pachuca, 38,620; Aguas Calientes, 44,800; Zacatecas, 25,905; Durango, 34,085; Toluca, 31,247; Leon, 63,263; Merida, 61,999; Queretaro, 35,011; Morelia, 39,116; Oaxaca, 37,469; Orizaba, 32,894; Chihuahua, 39,061; Vera Cruz, 29,164.

TWO RACIAL STOCKS

The Mexican nation is composed of two racial stocks. Nearly one-half of the people are of mixed Indian and Spanish blood, about one-third are of pure Indian descent, and the remainder are of European ancestry, descendants of Spanish colonists who immigrated under Spanish rule. The Mexicans of pure Indian blood range in the social scale from the city Indians, who have acquired the ways and ideas of Spanish-American civilization, to the uncivilized wild tribes of the unsettled wilderness in the extreme southern and northern states. The Indians of the cities and farming regions are a sober and hard-working people, capable of much physical endurance, but as a rule unambitious and unprogressive. Some, however, have become distinguished men. President Juarez

was a pure-blooded Indian. The Mexicans of pure Spanish blood are also conservative in ideas, but they maintain the European modes of life of their ancestors and preserve Spanish culture. They are the real leaders of Mexican social life and dominate in political effort.

The population of mixed blood combines much of the genius of Spanish ancestry with the vitality of Indian blood. Under the stimulus of education and political experience this element is showing an ability in practical affairs that seems to guarantee a strong national development for the Republic.

RELIGION AND EDUCATION

The prevailing religion of Mexico is Roman Catholic. The clergy formerly possessed great political influence, but since 1859 it has largely lost it through the confiscation of church property by the government and the enactment of repressive laws. Marriage has been made a civil ceremony, convents have been suppressed, and religious instruction barred out of the public schools. Protestantism has secured a foothold among the Mexicans, but exists feebly.

Education is in a backward state. Public schools exist under the control of the federal government, and since 1896 primary education has been compulsory in the districts directly under federal control. In nearly every state the law provides for free schools and compulsory attendance, but there is no strict enforcement of the law. At the national capital there are excellent schools of law, medicine, and engineering. School statistics show more than 10,000 public schools in the country and about 2,600 private schools. The Indian population, however, is practically illiterate.

PRINCIPAL CITIES OF MEXICO

The principal cities, besides the City of Mexico, described elsewhere, are as follows:

Toluca, capital of the state of Mexico and its principal commercial town, is situated forty-five miles from the City of Mexico and 8,000 feet above the sea level. The state is one of the most important agricultural and industrial sections in Mexico. The climate varies with the altitude. Stock-raising is an important source of wealth, and valuable mineral deposits are worked.

Puebla, capital of the state of the same name, lies southeast of the City of Mexico and at practically the same elevation. The great volcanic cones of Popocatapetl and Ixtaccihuatl lie to the west in full view of the city. Puebla has extensive manufactures of cotton cloth, pottery, and glassware, and important agricultural interests.

Guanajuato is the capital of the state of the same name, a region rich in minerals and one of the most important mercantile and industrial centers of Mexico. The total trade of the state has an estimated annual value of about $67,000,000. The capital city was the scene of the execution of a number of patriots during the war for independence in 1811.

San Luis Potosi, capital of the state of the same name, is situated in a broad, fertile valley, rich in silver. The productive Potosi mines became known to Europeans in the sixteenth century. The capital, founded in 1576, is an important railway center with thriving manufactures of shoes, hats, and hardware. Trade is large and increasing.

Monterey, capital of the state of Nuevo Leon, has many manufacturing establishments and is the commercial center of northern Mexico; the city is located in a great plain, flanked by the Sierra Madre and Sierra de Picachos mountains.

Saltillo, capital of the state of Coahuila, is noted for the manufacture of zarapes, cotton cloth, knit goods, and flour. Owing to its mild and genial climate, the city is a favorite summer resort.

Durango, capital of the state of the same name, is a prosperous town with modern municipal improvements

and flourishing sugar, flour, and woolen mills and foundries. It is also a banking center.

Vera Cruz, the commercial capital of the state of Vera Cruz, has an annual trade amounting to about $100,000,000.

Guadalajara, capital of the state of Jalisco, is a beautiful city situated 6,100 feet above the sea level. The agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial interests of the state are of considerable importance.

Culiacan, capital of the state of Sinaloa, is an important commercial center with cotton manufactories. The state is well watered and a number of its rivers are navigable. The chief agricultural products of the hot belt of this state are corn, wheat, sugar-cane, rum, henequen, and mescal; the raising of cattle is important. In the cold, wet mountain region are mines of wonderful richness.

RIVERS AND LAKES

Owing to its extremely mountainous character, Mexico has very few permanent rivers. Even the Rio Grande, the largest stream, at times becomes almost dry between El Paso and Ojinaga (Presidio del Norte) in consequence of the diversion of water for irrigation in New Mexico.

The Rio Grande is navigable, for small boats only, for about 450 miles. The most important stream of the north is the Conchos, an affluent of the Rio Grande, which flows through the state of Chihuahua. In southern Mexico two considerable rivers flow into the Pacific — the Grande de Santiago or Lerma, principally in the state of Jalisco, and the Rio de las Balsas, navigable for a short distance in its course through and along the northern borders of the state of Guerrero. The Grijalva and Usumacinta rivers, with the tributaries, afford the only navigable waterways worthy of note in the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

The principal lake region of Mexico is within the states of Michoacan and Jalisco. Lake Chapala, on the border line, eighty miles long and thirty miles wide, is by far

the largest inland body of water. In the Valley of Mexico is a group of lakes which has a history unique in the annals of hydraulic engineering. The valley is an immense basin largely occupied by these shallow bodies of water. Not only were destructive inundations frequent, but the miasmatic exhalations from the stagnant lakes made Mexico the most unhealthful city in the world. Under the Spanish viceroys large sums were expended and hundreds of thousands of lives were sacrificed in the fruitless endeavor to drain the valley, but under the government of President Diaz the drainage plan of the Spaniards, with certain modifications, was realized, the system having cost more than $20,000,000 complete. A canal nearly thirty miles long controls the waters of the lakes, and with them flushes the sewers of the city, while a drainage tunnel 6.2 miles long and from 13.7 to 14.06 feet in cross-section has been bored through the mountains north of Lake Zumpango. This work ranks among the greatest achievements of modern times.

MEXICAN FLORA AND FAUNA

The flora of Mexico is unrivaled. It has been remarked that the most striking characteristic of the Mexican flowers, to which branch of the flora this sketch is limited, is their deep, rich color. The prevailing color of the flowers is always glowing and intense. There can be no more pleasing or extensive field for the botanist than the tropical forests of Mexico, in whose deep shades bloom the most exquisitely tinted flowers and orchids. In the vicinity of Orizaba, a locality almost incomparable as regards the great variety of flowers, orchid collectors may find a paradise.

In the valley of Mexico there is no day in the year that finds the markets wanting in a superabundance of beautiful roses and flowers to delight the eye and regale the senses, and the marvelous size the calla lilies, heliotropes, camelias and poppies attain arrests wondering attention.

PLAN
OF THE
CITY OF MEXICO.

REFERENCES.

CHURCHES.

Ana, Sta.	6
Augustin Zoquipa, San	55
Antonio Abad, San	58
Antonio el Pobre, San	62
Antonio Tepito, San	60
Antonio Tomatlan, San	59
Balvanera, La	91
Belen (chapel)	63
Belen de los Padres	43
Bernardo, San	39
Betlemitas	31
Brigida, Sta.	28
Camilo, San (Seminario)	99
Campo Florido	52
Candelaria, La	65
Caridad, La	64
Carmen, El	17
Catalina de Sena Sta.	32
Catarina Martir, Sta.	3
Clara, Sta.	33
Colegio de Ninas	40
Concepcion, La	19
Concepcion, La (chpl.)	54
Concepcion, La, de Tequisquepa (ch.)	61
Corpus Christi	35
Cosme, San	14
Cruz Acatlan, Sta	11
Cruz y Soledad, Sta.	7
Diego, San	16
Domingo, Sto.	15
Encarnacion, La	30
Ensenanza, La	29
Fernando, San	18
Francisco, San (Prot.)	1
Geronimo, San	23
Geronimo, San (chpl.)	58
Hipolito, San	114
Hospital Real	69
Ines, Sta. (Segrado Corazon)	45
Jesus Maria	22
Jesus Nazareno	109
Jose, San	5
Jose de Gracia, San (Protestant)	26
Juan de Dios, San	72
Juan de la Penitencia, San	54
Lazaro, San	74
Lorenzo, San	24
Loreto	35
Lucas, San	47
Maria de los Angeles, Sta.	44
Maria la Redonda, Sta.	9
Miguel, San	2
Monserrate	48
Nicolas, San	67
Pablo, San	10
Pablo, S. (Hospital Chapel)	46
Palma, S. Tomas la	56
Pedro S., and S Pablo	70
Porta Coeli	41
Profesa, La	36
Regina Coeli	20
Romita, La	66
Rosario, El	57
Salto del Agua	12
Salvador el Seco, San	51
Salvador el Verde, San	50
Santiago Tlaltelolco	42
Santisima, La	37
Sebastian, San	8
Segrado Corazon (Sta. Ines)	45
Seminario (San Camilo)	98
Tlaxcoque	49
Teresa la Antigua, Sta	26
Teresa la Nueva, Sta.	27
Tomas la Palma, Sto.	56
Trinidad (Protestant)	68
Vera Cruz, Sta.	4

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

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Asilo de Mendigos	124
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Biblioteca Nacional	102
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Vizcainas	100

RAILWAY STATIONS.

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Mexican (Vera Cruz) Buena Vista	G.
Mexican Central, Buena Vista	G.
Mexican National, Colonia	Q.

EXPLANATION OF RAILWAYS

Steam Railways

Suburban Tramways & Transfer Lines

SCALE OF FEET
0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500 3000

SCALE OF METRES
0 50 100 200 300 500 1000

There are about fifty varieties of lilies blooming in varied garb in this valley. Each belt, the hot, the temperate and the cold, displays its own peculiar varieties of flowers, and in each has Nature spread her most gorgeous colors, her fairest tints, and her sweetest perfumes.

The animal kingdom is almost as extensively represented in the territory of Mexico as the botanical. On the plains of the north, over the frontier states, roamed bands of bison and antelope, and chamois, beaver, tiger-cat, tapir, and black, brown and cinnamon bear abound. Venomous serpents and insects lurk in the forests of the hot lands. The mountains and foot-hills present a veritable paradise to the sportsman — deer, hare, rabbits, quail, wild pigeons, partridges, and an infinite variety of birds and ground game abounding. Horses, cattle, sheep and goats are found almost everywhere, and are the source of much wealth and industry.

The birds are far-famed for their brilliant plumage and singing qualities. In the hot lands the birds are more distinguished for beauty of plumage than melody of voice, their coloring being as varied as that of the flowers, but in the colder belts splendid songsters fill the air with thrilling notes.

Sperm and gray-back whales, seals, and sea lions abound in the western waters of Lower California and in the gulf of that name. The waters of both coasts as well as the rivers and mountain streams teem with a great variety of fish. Alligators infest the river mouths of both coasts. Turtles of all kinds are also found in abundance on the coasts. Tortoises exist in the waters of Yucatan and Lower California as well as on the coasts of Sinaloa. The shell is an important article of export.

THE STATES OF MEXICO

The Republic of Mexico comprises twenty-eight states, one territory and the Federal District in which the national capital is located. The state governments are

very similar to those of the United States, having a governor, legislature, courts, etc. The following table is interesting:

Name of State	Capital	Area in Sq. Miles
Aguas Calientes	Aguas Calientes	3,080
Campeche	Campeche	20,760
Coahuila	Saltillo	59,000
Colima	Colima	2,700
Chiapas	Tuxtla Guitierrez	29,600
Chihuahua	Chihuahua	89,200
Durango	Durango	42,300
Guanajuato	Guanajuato	12,300
Guerrero	Chilpancingo	22,700
Hidalgo	Pachuca	7,600
Jalisco	Guadalajara	38,400
Mexico	Toluca	8,080
Michoacan	Morelia	23,000
Morelos	Cuernavaca	1,850
Nuevo Leon	Monterey	25,000
Oaxaca	Oaxaca	28,400
Puebla	Puebla	12,600
Queretaro	Queretaro	3,800
San Luis Potosi	San Luis Potosi	26,100
Sinaloa	Culiacan	36,100
Sonora	Hermosillo	77,000
Tabasco	San Juan Bautista	10,000
Tamaulipas	Victoria	29,000
Tlaxcala	Tlaxcala	1,500
Vera Cruz	Jalapa	23,840
Yucatan	Merida	28,400
Zacatecas	Zacatecas	25,300
Territory of Tepic	Tepic	530
Lower California	La Paz	60,000
Federal District	City of Mexico	450
Total		748,590

The largest state is Chihuahua, since Coahuila was shorn of that portion of the domain now called Texas. Tlaxcala is the smallest state. After the Federal District, Puebla is the wealthiest in assessed values, with Guanajuato a close second. The wealth of the former is, for the most part, in the silver mines; of the latter, in agricultural lands and onyx quarries. Campeche represents the smallest amount of wealth. The Federal District is to Mexico what the District of Columbia is to the United States, with laws administered under the direction of the Federal government.

MINERAL RESOURCES

" Mining is the most productive industry. Mines of some description are to be found in 26 of the 31 states and territories. There is also considerable production of coal, copper, and iron.

" The mineral resources of Mexico also include petroleum, asphalt, platinum, graphite, sodium, and marble.

" The most celebrated iron deposit is that of the Cerro del Mercado, in the outskirts of the city of Durango — a mountain 640 feet in height, 1,100 in breadth, and 4,800 in length, reputed to be almost a solid mass of iron." — Encyclopaedia Britannica.

MUSIC

" The Mexican people are very fond of music," says Mr. Alfred R. Conkling, formerly United States geologist, in his useful guide to Mexico. " There are excellent military bands in all the cities and garrisoned towns, where a pagoda is generally erected in the main plaza. They usually play three evenings in the week, when the ' swell ' population turns out to enjoy the music. Travelers will find pianos all over the country, even in towns 500 miles distant from a seaport or railway terminus. Violins and guitars are also used, the latter being com-

mon among the Indians and mestizos. Wandering street musicians are rare.

"There is not much original Mexican music; the national hymn, consisting of ten verses, being the best known. It was written by Baconegra, and set to music by Nuno."

MEXICAN NATIONAL HYMN

The following is a metrical translation of the first two verses and chorus of the national hymn of Mexico, arranged for Mr. Conkling by a friend to whom he gives due credit for the excellent version:

Oh, may the olive-branch of peace,
Dear Fatherland, wave over thee;
For writ in heaven, by God's own hand,
Is thine eternal destiny.
And if the foe, with foot profane,
Invade thy soil, O sacred land!
Each son of thine, a soldier born,
The fierce invasions shall withstand.

CHORUS

Mexicans, haste to fight and bleed!
Make ready sword and bridled steed;
Let the earth tremble to its core,
Exulting in the cannon's roar.

SECOND VERSE

Behold them plunged in bloody strife;
The love which animates each heart
Impels them on to give their life,
And e'er count death the better part.
The former exploits of thy sons,
O Fatherland, remember now,
And once again immortal crowns
Of laurel shall adorn thy brow.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

The chief exports of Mexico are precious metals, coffee, tobacco, hemp, sisal, sugar, dyewoods and cabinet woods, cattle and hides and skins. In 1912 the total exports amounted to $149,007,000; total imports for the same year were $71,330,000.

The trade of Mexico is chiefly with the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany and Spain. In 1913, the imports from the United States were $54,571,584; exports to $77,543,842.

MIXED BLOOD IN MEXICO

As the Spanish conquerors brought few women, there was much mixture of races. Among the pure whites — who were practically all of Spanish extraction — there were two well-defined classes, the Gachupines or chapetones, Spaniards born in Europe, said to be so named in allusion to their spurs, from Aztec words meaning "prickers with the foot," and the native-born or creoles; the former, though a small majority, had almost all the higher positions both in the public services and in commerce. Besides these there were five well-defined castas: mestizoes (Indian and white); mulattoes (negro and white); Zambos (negro and Indian), who were regarded as specially vicious and dangerous; native Indians and negroes. But there were about a dozen intermediate "named varieties," of which the saltoatras (tending away from white) and tente en l'aire (tending towards white) may be mentioned; and many of the last named eventually passed into the creole class, sometimes by the decree of a court. The fact that the trade route to Manila passed through Vera Cruz, Mexico City, and Acapulco entailed the settlement also of a few Chinese and Malays, chiefly on the Pacific coast.—Encyclopaedia Britannica.

"AMPARO"

This word means literally "protection," and in Mexico recourse may be had to the writ so called whenever any constitutional guaranty or natural right is violated by established authority. Should any citizen consider himself restrained of his liberty or deprived of his property, or denied any other right recognized under the constitution, without due process of law, he may go into the federal courts for amparo, setting forth his specific grievance, and asking amparo from the authority to whose action the restraint, deprivation or denial is due.

This writ is the *magna charta* of the Mexicans, and is pointed to by them as their most precious constitutional right. The legal proceedings in cases of this character partake largely of what are known under the United States laws as quo warranto, habeas corpus, mandamus, and prohibition proceedings. The effect of the granting of the writ is to nullify the act complained of.

MANY BIRDS AND INSECTS

Senor Don Antonio Garcia Cubas mentions fifty-two varieties of mammal quadrupeds as existing in the Republic, and two hundred and three varieties of fowls, including domestic fowls, as well as over fifty kinds of humming birds, differing in color and form, and forming a chromatic scale of brilliant tints running from sea green through bluish green to emerald green, and from the lightest straw color to the deepest scarlet and fiery red. Of reptiles the authority cited enumerates forty-three classes, and of batrachians thirteen species.

Among insects those claiming attention are the cochineal (coccus cacti) and the honey bee, because of the excellent materials they produce beneficial to industry and to commerce. The former insect is cultivated in Oaxaca, living on the prickly-pear cactus, and producing

a red liquid dye. Winterbotham, one of the eighteenth century's historians, in his "History of America," relates that the trade in cochineal by the city of Oaxaca alone in the year 1796 amounted to 200,000 crowns in value.

The bee is to be found all over Mexico, busily producing prodigious quantities of honey and wax.

The country offers a vast and rich field to the naturalist and entomologist for the study of the innumerable species of coleopterous insects.

THE PARIS OF AMERICA

The City of Mexico has been aptly termed the Paris of America. Although situated in the heart of the country, it is no less cosmopolitan in character than are New York and San Francisco, containing, as it does, a large percentage of foreigners, and of citizens who have resided and traveled in foreign countries.

The capital has been subject to remarkable changes, as well of a physical as of a social and political character. Once it was the Venice of the continent, enthroned amid the lake and surrounded with a sheltering circle of forest-crowned heights and green meadows, among which were tributary settlements, bright with garden foliage. Canals intersected the city in every direction, filled with swiftly gliding canoes and stately barges, and on gala days the expanse was crowded with spectators, intent on witnessing the imposing ceremonies at the temple of the war-god. Now unsightly marshes fringe the ever-narrowing surface of the lake, while the forests have been wantonly destroyed, and ancient structures razed to the ground by the early conquerors, or defaced by the ravages of civil war.

FEAST DAYS AND HOLIDAYS

Among the Mexicans there are many feast-days and religious holidays — so many as to interfere somewhat

with the affairs of this busy and untiring world; but their span of life is not shortened or made unpleasant by these brief interludes from toil. On such occasions nearly all places of business, except those of the grocer, the barber, and the dram-seller, are closed; though venders of fruit, sweetmeats, and trinkets follow their calling until dusk or far into the night. Yet the people seem none the worse for their recreation, ever ready as they are to accept excuse from labor, and it is doubtful whether they would be better engaged were there no such celebrations.

On certain feast-days, troops of girls arrayed in white may be seen upon the streets at daybreak, singing in chorus as they wend their way toward the church. The orthodox dress of an aldeana on such occasions is somewhat elaborate — a white muslin garment trimmed with lace, satin vest, open in front; a long colored sash and rebozo, and as many gold and silver ornaments as the wearer can afford to purchase.

In their mode of life the wealthy Mexicans have adopted European customs. The *desayuno,* or first breakfast, consists simply of coffee or chocolate, taken soon after rising. After two or three hours comes the breakfast proper, served between nine and twelve, and consisting of a great variety of dishes. The dinner hour, depending on professional or other duties, is between four and six, followed by supper at eight, after which come chocolate and cigars.

While the rich eat more than is good for them, the poor are underfed, their diet consisting principally of fruit, tortillas, and frijoles, though with a piece of meat, and a few vegetables, they can set forth half a dozen dishes of excellent quality.

THE CORNER GROCERY

As in the United States, the corner grocery is a prominent institution in Mexico. Native adulterated wines,

aguardiente, or fire-water, bread, sugar, rice, beans, chile, and divers mixtures, preserved in tin or glass, are dealt out by greasy and unkempt shopkeepers, who insist on having the money in one hand before they dispense their wares with the other. Hardly less common are the pulquerias, where only pulque is sold. To many this liquor is meat, drink, and all earthly consolation, more money being expended for it than for food, clothing and the necessaries of life.

TORTILLAS AND PULQUE

Tortillas and pulque are staple articles of consumption, in the manufacture of which hundreds of thousands of persons are employed, the former being to the poor their daily bread and often meat as well. In the outskirts of the cities are places where a dozen women work under a female overseer, who owns the business. Their chief utensils, the *petate,* or reed mat, the *metate,* or stone for crushing the softened corn, and the *comalli,* or pan, are indispensable articles in every Mexican household. Then there is the *enchiladera,* who sits at the door of the pulqueria, and offers hot turnover tortillas, containing meat and chile, or sometimes cheese and onions, which are bought at the rate of two for a cent, and sold at two for a *tlaco.* The breakfast of mechanics consists of beans and pulque, and for supper their usual fare is beans and pulque.

HOW PULQUE IS PREPARED

Pulque, as already stated, is the fermented juice of the Agave Americana, of which there are several varieties in Mexico, and east of the capital, near Guadalajara and elsewhere, are vast plantations which yield a large and steady income. As the plant is about to put forth its high, flowering stalk, the core is cut out, leaving a receptacle that will contain from three to four gallons, and into which flows the sap which should support the stalk.

Twice a day this is withdrawn by means of a long gourd, which is emptied into a sack made of pigskin, and carried on the back.

After fermentation, the fluid has the consistence and somewhat the appearance of milk, but with a perceptible odor, and in this form it is taken to the pulque shops to be sold and drunk. At first it has been said to taste like a combination of soap-suds, bilge-water, and turpentine; but a liking for it is soon acquired, and it is even said to be beneficial if taken in moderation, though with this, as with all other intoxicating drinks, the greater the moderation, the greater the benefit.

While passing a pulque field travelers frequently stop to drink of the *agua miel,* or unfermented juice of the agave, which is cool and transparent as water, and with a sweet acid taste.

AN AZTEC TYPE

A fair type of the original Aztecs may be found among the boatmen and women who ply their trade on the Chalco Canal, bringing into Mexico City flowers and vegetables from the remains of the floating gardens. The boats are of two kinds, one resembling a canoe and usually managed by a woman, the other flat-bottomed, six or eight feet wide, thirty or forty feet long, and capable of carrying the produce belonging to two or three families. Many of the latter have a cabin in the middle, which forms the home of the occupants, where they work, eat, and sleep.

CHOLULA AND ITS VICINITY

Among the finest views of Mexico is the one obtained from the summit of the hill of Cholula, where the visitor stands amid drooping pines, stunted rose-bushes, and porcelain-plated graves, beside the dilapidated wall of the church. It is a rugged, uneven elevation, rising some two hundred feet above the plain, and is partly the work of nature and partly of man. The winding roadway, paved with smooth stones and containing broad flights of steps,

is bordered with thrifty grasses, and the thick shrubbery that covers the hillside is freely interspersed with cactus and the pepper-tree. In front is Popocatepetl, and the next to it the scarcely less imposing peak of Iztaccihuatl, the White Woman, She of the Recumbent Figure; while in the opposite direction, over the glittering domes of distant Puebla, stands forth Orizaba, white-crested and winged with fleecy clouds.

Below is the city of Cholula, with its long lines of intersecting canals, as when Cortez first saw them, marking the divisions of cornfields and gardens, lined with plantations of maguey. A single glance, says Bancroft, tells the story of its inhabitants — how the poor, in their small, uncomfortable houses, pinch themselves to maintain the costly service of the great temples, and to add to their splendor. The inhabitants of all this rich and fertile valley, given up as a prey to contending armies since the advent of the Spaniards, are now for the first time learning the arts of peace, and are yet greatly devoted to religious rites, as was the case in the remote epoch of the Toltec dynasty, when pilgrims flocked from afar to the shrine of the Feathered Serpent.

Within sight of the hill of Cholula are about forty villages, marked by the tall, white towers of thrice as many churches, some standing solitary in the open plain, some sheltered by trees and shrubbery, and others being mere hamlets, with a score of dingy and half-deserted houses, clustering around a dingy and dilapidated church.

A CITY OF CHURCHES

Puebla has been called the city of churches, with its sixty or seventy high-domed and broad-spreading temples, about one for every thousand of the half-naked and barefooted natives, who are called upon to support them and their three hundred priests. The state prison is in part a church; the house of maternity is a church; the state college was once a convent, forming part of a church

edifice; and the cathedral, though smaller than that of Mexico City, is even richer in interior decorations.

But in proportion to population, the squalid though famous little town of Cholula outranks even Puebla in this respect. There is the small church, with its two towers, and their huge bells, on the historic hill, rusty without, but elaborately gilded within; there is the large church amid the houses below, near to which the worshippers congregate for the bull-fight after divine service; there is also one to the right of it, and one to the left, with others surrounding them on every side, the simultaneous clangor of their bells during the red glow of sunset giving to the visitor the impression that the entire place is on fire and that the alarm is being sounded.

On the site where these churches are built, there once stood no less than four hundred heathen temples; but of all the architectural monuments which in former days crowned the pyramid of Cholula, or clustered around the base, not one has been preserved. The records which have been handed down to us are, however, more distinct even than those which have been sculptured on Egyptian marble or Assyrian frieze. One may still picture to one's self the ancient Aztec processions with their dismal chant and clang of instruments, wending their way through the long, white streets toward the sacrifice; one may see in fancy the bodies of victims hurled over the precipice, as the blood-besmeared priest holds aloft the still quivering heart, and may imagine the beneficent deity, Quetzalcoatl, here taking leave of his people, promising to return ere long with new and celestial blessings.

CITIES AND THEIR CHARACTER

In most of the cities of Mexico the Asiatic style of architecure is observable, though the Moorish is perhaps the most common. The houses, with their solid walls, are usually of one story, low and with flat tiled roofs, the better class of dwellings enclosing a spacious court with

a wide entrance, closed at night with double doors, and having iron-barred windows or openings looking into the street and court-yard. The palaces, as they are termed, and the more pretentious residences, are usually of two stories, with colonnades of masonry, wooden rafters, and bare floors, usually of tiles. Outside are narrow stone sidewalks, frequently worn hollow by centuries of use. Everywhere the exterior is plain, and sometimes even forbidding; but in the chief cities there are abodes which are fitted up with oriental luxury and splendor.

A common dwelling in the *tierra caliente* is a one-story hut, built of canes resting on the ground and supporting a roof, thatched with palm leaves if near the sea-shore, or covered with a long, coarse grass if near the hills. On the table-lands adobes are commonly used for the walls, or adobes mixed with stone.

THE HOME OF THE PEON

The interior of these humble abodes corresponds to the bareness without. Entering one of them we find a single room from twelve to fifteen feet square, with a hole in the roof, which serves as chimney, a door to admit the occupants, the air, and the light, a hole in that door for window, unplastered walls, a flooring of earth, and a ceiling of tiles. For furniture there are a few seats made of canes bound together with rawhide, and covered with untanned calfskin; there is seldom a table, and never a bedstead. In a corner of the hut is the bedding, which is rolled up until nightfall, and consists of matting or dried skins; while for covering the man has his zarape, and the woman her rebozo, the threshold of the door doing duty for pillow. A few shelves contain the family crockery and cooking utensils, and earthen bowls and pots surround the hearthstone, on which at meal-times a small fire of sticks or charcoal is kindled to bake the tortillas and cook the frijoles, and then carefully extinguished, for fuel is expensive, and wages of eight or ten dollars

a month do not admit of luxuries. In this dwelling live man and wife, with probably several children, a few fowls, a pig or two, and perhaps a small collection of canine favorites. Such is the home of the Mexican peon, of which class the people are mainly composed, and on whose descendants will largely depend the destiny of the nation.

PERSONS OF MIXED BLOOD

In Mexico, the offspring of a European and an Indian is termed a *mestizo;* of a European and an African, a *mulatto;* of an Indian and an African, a *zambo* or *chino.* A mestizo union with a European, Indian or African produces respectively a *castizo* or *trigueno,* a *mestizo-claro,* and a *mulatto-obscuro;* from a corresponding mulatto union spring a *morisco* or *terceron,* a *chino-obscuro* and a *zambo-negro;* and from a similar intermarriage with a zambo come a *chino-blancho,* a *chino-cholo,* and a *zambo-chino.* These are the terms most frequently used, though varying in different parts of the Republic.

PROTESTANTS IN MEXICO

In the year 1871 the Protestant Episcopal Church sent one of its representatives to Mexico, in the person of H. C. Riley, by whom the work of Protestant missions was initiated. Soon afterward came Baptist, Congregationalist, Presbyterian, and Methodist missionaries, of whom the last have probably been the most successful; for to this sect, a few years ago, the field was virtually conceded. In the capital a portion of an old conventual building was granted to them, and notwithstanding the opposition of the Catholics, they met with a friendly reception from the government. Churches and chapels were constructed; congregations gradually collected, and in 1883 there were more than two hundred Protestant ministers in the country, the majority of whom were Mexicans by birth. It cannot be said, however, that as yet the Protestants have made much progress in the work

of evangelization, although no special obstacles have been encountered; for in Mexico all religions are tolerated, while none are officially recognized.

TRANSPORTATION

The unsettled political conditions of Mexico from 1821 to 1877, and the lack of transportation facilities, prevented development of the country's rich resources. At the accession of President Diaz to power in 1877, Mexico had but one railroad. Since that year the building of railroads has been the greatest feature of Mexican development, and the federal government has aided the work by large subsidies. Nearly all the larger cities now are connected with each other by rail. Rich mining regions and agricultural districts have secured outlets for their wealth, and trade has been developing rapidly. Outside capital has done this for Mexico. Railroad building and mining have been mainly in the hands of American and English investors, while retail trade of the cities has been largely absorbed by German merchants.

RAILROAD TRAVEL

When conditions are normal, travel in Mexico is attended by all the comforts and very many of the luxuries that are found on the railway and steamer lines of the United States, where the science of travel has well nigh been perfected. Passenger trains are composed of coaches of American manufacture and are for passengers of the first, second and third classes, with all the accommodations found in modern cars. Pullman sleeping cars are attached to the through express trains of the trunk lines between the United States and Mexico, and on side lines and branch roads of importance.

The dining-car and buffet service is yet in its infancy, but the wayside restaurant is as a rule good and up to the average.

Railway tickets are regulated by a code of rules, sim-

ilar to those in effect in the United States. They are first, second and third class, at prices in accordance with accommodations furnished.

COINS AND PAPER MONEY

The money of Mexico is the same as that of the United States — i. e., dollars and cents — called in Spanish *pesos y centavos;* that is the legal way of counting it, as enacted by a law taking effect in 1890, but the people still use the old system to some extent, though they understand both. A *tlaco* is a cent and a half, a *cuartilla* is three cents; these are of copper and now almost out of circulation. The old silver coins were the *medio,* 6¼ cents; *real,* 12½ cents, also called in; the quarter and half dollars are rarely so called, they are *dos reales* (pronounced do re-al-es), and *cuatro reales;* and seventy-five cents is *seis reales.* Regardless of the law to the contrary, prices are quoted in *reales,* up to one dollar, then in most cases it is *pesos y reales,* thus: a dollar and a half is *un peso y cuatro reales,* one dollar and four reales.

The fifty-cent piece is sometimes called a *toston,* and 25 cents a *peseta,* though rarely. The Mexicans make change to a nicety, says Reau Campbell, and are credited with splitting *tlacos,* literally, and with a hatchet.

Gold is little used — but under the recent laws the $5, $10 and $20 coins are coming into circulation. The legal value of the Mexican *peso* is 50 cents gold.

The paper money in circulation is in notes of the National Bank of Mexico, the state banks and the Bank of London, Mexico and South America, all passing at par, except in rare cases notes of some of the state banks beyond the limits of the state where issued are taken at a slight discount.

Silver is to be depended upon at all times, but it is too bulky and heavy to carry in large amounts. The native possessed of a sufficiency carries it in a handbag attached to a strap over the shoulder.

POLICE AND RURALES

The police are not as hard to find in Mexico as in some other countries, and there are soldiers everywhere, not as a menace in ordinary times, but as a protection.

There has never been but one " hold up " of a passenger train in Mexico, and that by American border ruffians. Train robbers are ordered to be shot on the spot of the hold up, and orders are obeyed in Mexico. The police of the cities are a well-trained, disciplined body of men, and always within call. In the City of Mexico and in the larger cities a policeman stands at street intersections at night; his lantern is placed in the middle of the street, and the long row of flickering lights up and down, in either direction, tells of the watchmen of the night. Your Mexican policeman never lets the wrong man go; he lets no guilty man escape; in case of altercation, dispute or difficulty he arrests all hands. No matter what occurs, when you are asked to accompany a policeman to the " *comiseria* " it is the part of discretion to accede to his request — no harm can come to the innocent and the matter is quickly settled by the officer in charge. The policeman is a soldier as well, and almost without exception is courteous and obliging and will go out of his beat to show the way or find a place for a stranger.

The *rurales,* as already stated, are the country police, mounted on the finest horses, and uniformed in the most picturesque manner, with saddles and trappings richly decorated. The men are fine specimens of humanity, stout and well built, wearing the broad sombrero of the country, a short leather jacket and trousers braided and bedecked, all with silver braid and gold. They are armed to the teeth with the latest improved arms, and well they know how to use them, for they were born to their use as their fathers before them. The first corps of the *rurales* was recruited from the bandits of the country in the seventies. Among other reforms instituted by Presi-

dent Diaz this was one of the most important. He found tribes of bandits scattered all over the country whose fathers before them had been bandits — they were a body of men who knew every nook and corner of the country and could not easily be put down. General Diaz offered amnesty and to organize them into a corps of the army, with regular pay, higher than any other cavalrymen in any of the armies of the world. The bandit accepted the amnesty and became a *rurale.*

The military education and army regulations are very similar to those of the United States; the West Point of Mexico is at Chapultepec; the officers' grades are almost identical with those of the United States.

The *jefe politico* is the chief political officer of a district comprising several towns or villages; under him is the *alcalde,* who is the mayor in the smaller towns. The police have no discretion in case of a quarrel or fight on the street or elsewhere; all participants are arrested and hurried off to the *comiseria;* every man is presumed guilty until he proves his innocence.

AMERICAN CAPITAL IN MEXICO

According to a report made by U. S. Consul Letcher at Chihuahua to the state department in 1913, the amount of money invested in Mexico by Americans is more than $1,000,000,000, classified as follows:

Railway bonds	$408,926,000
Railway stocks	235,464,000
Mines	223,000,000
National bonds	52,000,000
Smelters	26,500,000
Bank deposits	22,700,000
The oil industry	15,000,000
The rubber industry	15,000,000
Factories	10,800,000
Live stock	9,000,000

Timber lands	8,100,000
Bank stocks	7,850,000
House & personal property	4,500,000
Insurance	4,000,000
Ranches	3,150,000
Wholesale stores	2,700,000
Retail stores	1,680,000
Professional outfits	3,600,000
Public institutions	1,200,000
Tramways & power plants.	760,000
Farms	960,000
Hotels	260,000
Breweries	600,000

Small additions of a miscellaneous character bring the total up to $1,057,770,000. American investments very largely exceed those of any other foreign country.

CHAPTER XXVI

CHRONOLOGY OF MEXICAN HISTORY

A. D. 648—Toltecs arrived in Anahuac.
1051—Toltecs abandoned the country.
1170—Chicimecs arrived in Mexico.
1196—Aztecs (Mexicans) reached Tula.
1200—Alcouans arrived.
1325—Mexicans founded Tenochtitlan or the City of Mexico.
1428—Foundation of the Aztec kingdom.
1431—Enthronement of Netzahualcoyotl, King of Texcoco.
1485—Cortéz born at Medellin, Spain.
1502—Montezuma II. enthroned.
1504—Cortéz left Spain for Cuba.
1510—Great tidal wave on Lake Texcoco overflowed Tenochtitlan.
1511—Turrets of the great Aztec temple burned.
Spanish ship wrecked on the Island of Cozumel.
1516—Death of Nezahualpilli, the Tezcucan King.
1517—March 4, discovery of Yucatan by Córdoba.
1518—May 1, departure of Grijalva from Cuba for Mexico.
November 18, Cortéz sailed from Santiago.
1519—February 10, Cortéz sailed from Habana.
March 20, Cortéz landed at the mouth of the Tabasco River.
April 21, Cortéz landed at Vera Cruz.

August 16, commenced the march to the City of Mexico.
September 23, Cortéz entered Tlaxcala.
November 8, Cortéz entered the City of Mexico.

1520—June 30, death of Montezuma.
July 1, Cortéz driven out of City of Mexico, Noche Triste, the "Dismal Night."
July 8, battle with the Mexicans at Otumba.

1521—August 13, re-entry of Cortéz into the City of Mexico.
Establishment by Spain of the rule over the new province by a governor.
Cortéz established the seat of government at Coyoacan.
Establishment of the first Christian church in the New World at Tlaxcala.

1524—First church commenced on the site of the present Cathedral.

1525—Hanging of Tetlepanquetzaltzin by Cortéz.

1526—September 19, Bishopric of Puebla established, seat at Puebla.

1528—Establishment of the government under the Audencia.

1529—July 6, Cortéz made Marques del Valle de Oaxaca.

1530—Guadalajara founded.

1531—December 9, vision of the Virgin of Guadalupe to Juan Diego.
December 12, Juan Diego gathered the flowers from where the Virgin stood. The feast of Guadalupe.
July 25, Querétaro became a Christian city.

1533—Toluca founded.

1535—The first Viceroy arrived in Mexico.
June 2, Bishopric of Oaxaca established, seat at Oaxaca.

First printing press brought to the country and first book printed in Mexico.

1536—August 29, cornerstone of the Cathedral at Puebla laid.

1539—March 19, Bishopric of Chiapas established, seat at San Cristóbal.

1541—May 18, Valladolid, now Morelia, founded.

1542—San Miguel founded.

1545—January 31, Archbishopric of Mexico established, seat at City of Mexico.

1546—September 8, discovery of silver at Zacatecas.

1547—December 2, Cortéz died in the town of Castelleja de la Questa, in Spain.

1548—January 20, Zacatecas founded.

July 31, Bishopric of Guadalajara established, seat at Guadalajara.

1552—First inundation of the City of Mexico, and the dyke of San Lazaro built.

1553—Silao founded.

1557—Guanajuato founded.

The Patio process for the amalgamation of silver invented by Bartolomé de Medina at Pachuca.

1562—August 15, Bishopric of Yucatan established, seat at Merida.

1568—English driven off the island of Los Sacraficios near Vera Cruz.

1570—August 16, the Inquisition established in Mexico.

Celaya founded.

1573—Cornerstone of the Cathedral laid in City of Mexico.

1574—Twenty-one Lutherans burned by order of the Inquisition.

1576—Leon founded.

1583—San Luis Potosí founded.

1586—An English ship captured near Acapulco.

1587—Sir Francis Drake captured a Spanish ship with a rich cargo, off California.
1596—Monterey founded.
1600—The City of Monterey founded.
1603—Building of the Aqueduct of Chapultepec commenced.
1604—Church on the Pyramid of Cholula dedicated.
1607—November 28, the great drainage canal, Tajo de Nochistongo, commenced.
1615—Foundation and walls of the Cathedral completed.
1618—Córdoba founded.
1620—September 28, Bishopric of Durango established, seat at Durango.
1623—Cathedral placed under roof.
1626—First service in the Cathedral.
1629—Great inundation of the City of Mexico.
1634—Subsiding of the waters of the inundation of the Plain of Mexico.
1643—Salvatierra founded.
1649—April 10, fifteen persons burned by order of the Inquisition.
April 18, Cathedral at Puebla consecrated.
1660—A colony of a hundred families settled in New Mexico.
1667—December 22, dedication of the Cathedral.
1678—May 2, Church of Santa Maria los Angeles at Churubusco completed.
1691—Conquest of Texas.
1692—Building of the National Palace commenced.
1709—May 1, completion of the Church of Guadalupe near City of Mexico.
1722—January 19, opening of the first theater in Mexico.
The first newspaper, Gaceta de Mexico, published in Mexico.

1724—February 4, completion of the Palacio del Ayuntamiento or City Hall.

1760—The first regular army organized in Mexico.

Houses numbered in the City of Mexico.

1767—Jesuits expelled from Mexico by Royal Order, dated January 15.

1770—A fleet sailed for Spain with a cargo of thirty millions of silver dollars.

1776—February 25, establishment of the Monte de Piedad or national pawn shop.

1777—December 25, Bishopric of Linares established, seat at Monterey.

1779—May 7, Bishopric of Sonora established, seat at Culiacan.

1783—September 27, Iturbide born.

1789—Arrival of the famous Viceroy, Conde de Revillagigedo. He appointed a police force in the City of Mexico, lighted and paved the streets.

1791—Completion of the towers of the Cathedral.

1795—Cession of Florida, west of the Perdido River, to France.

1802—August 4, casting of the bronze statue of Charles IV., at 6 a. m.

1803—December 9, statue of Charles IV. unveiled in the Plaza Mayor.

Humboldt traveled in Mexico.

1810—September 16, Hidalgo sounded the Grito of Mexican Independence.

October 30, battle of Las Cruces.

1811—January 16, Hidalgo defeated at the Bridge of Calderon.

May 21, Hidalgo captured at Acatita de Bajan.

June 26, Allende, Aldama and Jiminez executed.

July 31, Hidalgo executed at Chihuahua.

1812—Evacuation of Cuautla by Morelos.

1813—September 14, meeting of the first Mexican Congress at Chilpancingo.

November 6, first formal Declaration of Mexican Independence.

December 23, defeat of Morelos.

1814—February 3, execution of Matamoras at Morelia.

October 22, proclamation of the first Constitution at Apatzingan.

1815—December 22, Morelos executed by order of the Inquisition.

1820—May 31, suppression of the Inquisition in Mexico.

1821—Promulgation of the Plan of Iguala and the colors of the Mexican flag.

August 2, Puebla taken by Iturbide.

September 27, Iturbide entered the City of Mexico.

1822—February 24, first Congress of the Mexican Nation assembled.

May 19, Iturbide elected emperor.

Iturbide and his wife anointed and crowned in the Cathedral of Mexico.

December 6, a Republic proclaimed by Santa Anna at Vera Cruz.

1823—July 14, Iturbide shot at Padilla.

1824—October 4, Constitution proclaimed.

October 10, first President of Mexico inaugurated.

November 7, Second Mexican Congress.

Statue of Charles IV. taken down and removed from the Plaza Mayor to the patio of the University.

1825—January 1, First Constitutional Congress assembled.

During this year the last Spanish soldier left Mexico in the evacuation of the Island of San Juan de Ulúa.

1829—A Spanish force landed at Tampico in July.
September 11, Spanish invaders defeated and captured by the forces under Generals Santa Anna and Mier.

1830—September 15, Porfirio Diaz born.

1835—Rebellion of Texas under Sam Houston.

1836—December 28, Spain formally recognized the Republic of Mexico.
March 6, massacre of the Alamo, San Antonio, Texas.
March 27, massacre at Goliad.
April 22, battle of San Jacinto, Texas. Santa Anna captured.

1837—August 22, first concession granted for a railway between the City of Mexico and Vera Cruz.

1840—April 27, Bishopric of Lower California established, seat at La Paz.

1844—April 12, Texas admitted into the Union.

1846—April 24, first skirmish of the American War.
May 8, battle of Palo Alto, and May 9, Resaca de la Palma.
May 18, General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande at Matamoros.
July 7, Monterey, Cal., captured.
July 8, San Francisco, Cal., captured.
September 20, Monterey captured.

1847—February 23, battle of Buena Vista.
February 28, Chihuahua occupied.
March 9, General Scott landed at Vera Cruz.
March 27, Vera Cruz captured.
April 18, battle of Cerro Gordo.
May 25, Puebla occupied by the Americans.

August 9, General Scott entered the Valley of Mexico.

August 20, battles of Padierna and Churubusco.

September 8, battles of Casa Mata and Molino del Rey.

September 12 and 13, storming and capture of Chapultepec.

September 13, capture of the Garita de Belem and San Cosme.

September 15, entry of the Americans into the City of Mexico.

1848—February 2, conclusion of peace and signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe, Hidalgo.

1850—June 1, Bishopric of Vera Cruz established, seat at Jalapa.

1851—President Arista inaugurated.

1852—Statue of Charles IV. placed in its present position.

1853—Santa Anna proclaimed dictator of Mexico.

1854—August 30, Bishopric of San Luis Potosí established, seat at San Luis Potosí.

1855—Comonfort elected President.

1856—June 25, decree ordering sale of church real estate by President Comonfort.

September 16, suppression of the Franciscan monks.

1859—July 12, proclamation of the Laws of the Reform, by President Juarez.

1861—July 17, passage of the law suspending payment on bonded debt of the Republic.

October 31, adoption of the Treaty of London by England, France and Spain.

Arrival of the allied fleet at Vera Cruz, in December, 1861, and January, 1862.

1862—January 26, Bishopric of Querétaro established, seat at Querétaro.

Bishopric of Leon established, seat at Leon.
Bishopric of Zamora established, seat at Zamora.
Bishopric of Zacatecas established, seat at Zacatecas.
February 19, Treaty of La Soledad signed.
May 5, brilliant battle at Puebla and repulse of the French by the Mexican General Zaragosa.

1863—March 6, suppression of all religious orders in Mexico.
March 16, Bishopric of Tulancingo established, seat at Tulancingo.
Bishopric of Chilapa established, seat at Chilapa.
Archbishopric of Michoacan established, seat at Morelia.
Archbishopric of Guadalajara established, seat at Guadalajara.
May 17, Puebla captured by the French.
June 9, French troops occupied the City of Mexico.
July 10, assembly of notables called in the City of Mexico, and the crown tendered to Maximilian, the Archduke of Austria.

1864—June 12, Maximilian crowned Emperor of Mexico.

1865—October 3, Maximilian published a decree declaring all persons in arms against the Imperial Government bandits, ordering them executed.
October 21, Generals Felix Diaz, Arteaga, Salazar and Villagomez shot at Uruápam as bandits under Maximilian's decree.
November 6, the United States, through Secretary Seward, sent a dispatch to Napoleon III., protesting against the presence of the

French army in Mexico as a grave reflection against the United States, and notifying him that nothing but a Republican would be recognized.

1866—April 5, Napoleon withdrew his support from Maximilian.

November, Napoleon ordered the evacuation of Mexico by the French troops.

1867—The last of the French troops leave Mexico in February.

April 2, capture of Puebla by General Porfirio Diaz.

April 11, Diaz defeated Márquez at San Lorenzo.

May 15, capture of Querétaro, surrender of Maximilian to General Escobedo.

June 19, execution of Maximilian, Mejía and Miramon.

June 21, capture of the City of Mexico by General Porfirio Diaz.

July 15, Juarez entered the City of Mexico and re-established his government.

1869—September 16, completion of the Mexican Railway to Puebla.

October 4, Bishopric of Tamaulipas established, seat at Victoria.

1871—December 1, Juarez re-elected President.

1872—July 18, death of President Juarez.

December 1, election of President Lerdo.

December 20, completion of the Mexican Railway in the meeting of the tracks above Maltrata.

1873—January 1, opening of the Mexican Railway between the City of Mexico and Vera Cruz.

1874—Incorporation in the Constitution of the Laws of the Reform.

1875—December 5, opening of the National Exhibition of Mexican products, in the City of Mexico.

1876—January 15, commenced the revolution under the plan of Tuxtepec.

November 24, General Porfirio Diaz entered the City of Mexico at the head of the revolutionary army and was proclaimed provisional president.

1877—May 6, General Diaz declared Constitutional President.

1878—Concession granted for the building of the Interoceanic Railway.

1879—June 24, execution of nine revolutionists against the Diaz government, at Vera Cruz.

1880—May 25, Bishopric of Tabasco established, seat at San Juan Bautista.

September 25, election of General Manuel Gonzalez as President.

Track laying on the Mexican Central commenced.

October 14, construction of Mexican National Railroad commenced.

1882—November 25, Sonora Railway opened.

1883—The " Nickel Riots " occurred.

March 15, Bishopric of Colima established, seat at Colima.

1884—March 8, completion of the tracks, and on April 5 opening of the Mexican Central Railway from El Paso to the City of Mexico.

1885—February, some Americans arrested for breaking twigs from the tree of Noche Triste (the Sorrowful Night).

1886—Completion of Mexican National Railroad to Morelia and Patzcuaro.

December 1, re-election of General Porfirio Diaz to the presidency.

1888—April 17, completion of the Mexican Central to Guadalajara.

March 1, completion of the International Railroad, Eagle Pass to Torreon.

November 1, completion of the Mexican National Railroad, from Laredo to the City of Mexico.

1889—Construction of the Mexican Southern Railroad commenced in September.

1892—November 11, opening of the Mexican Southern Railroad.

1893—Completion of the Interoceanic Railway to Vera Cruz.

1894—March 1, first party of American tourists visited the Ruins of Mitla, under escort of the American Tourist Association.

Completion of the Tehuantepec Railroad.

1895—October 12, coronation of the Virgin of Guadalupe.

1896—September 16, Mexico's Liberty Bell, the bell of Hidalgo, placed over the entrance to the National Palace.

November 8, President Diaz opens 2nd Pan-American Medical Congress.

1897—Completion of the Mexico, Cuernavaca & Pacific Railway to Cuernavaca.

1901—April 10, dedication of the Chapel on the Cerro Campana, where Maximilian was executed.

Excavations at Mitla reveal subterranean chambers, cement pavings, stone curbings.

1903—First solid train of Pullmans from Vera Cruz to the City of Mexico.

1905—Mexican National R. R. made standard gauge through to the City of Mexico.

1906—Mexico adopts gold standard, fixing the value of the peso at fifty cents gold.

1908—Merger of the Mexican National and Mexican Central Railways under the name of the National Lines of Mexico, the government owning controlling interest.

1910—November 23, Francisco I. Madero proclaims himself provisional president.

1911—May 25, Diaz resigns and sails with family for Europe May 31.

October 1, Madero elected president.

1913—February 19, Madero arrested by General Blanquet and General Victoriano Huerta, commander of federal troops, proclaimed provisional president.

February 21, General Carranza starts new revolution in Northern States.

February 22, President Madero and Vice-President Suarez assassinated about midnight.

United States declines to recognize Huerta as president.

November 2, General Huerta notified by President Wilson that he must resign the presidency of Mexico.

1914—April 20, President Wilson appears before Congress and asks authority to use army and navy of United States in enforcing respect for United States flag in Mexico.

April 21, United States sailors and marines occupy City of Vera Cruz. Active hostilities begun.

April 25, Mediation proposed by Argentina, Brazil and Chile, accepted by President Wilson and later by Huerta. Armistice agreed upon.

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